The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 4, 1901.

The Week.

Less than three years ago Frederick Funston entered the volunteer army as colonel of the Twentieth Kansas Infantry, without previous military experience except that gained by bushwhacking with the Cuban insurgents. To-day he is one of the leading generals of the regular army, and, with Gens. Wood, Bell, and Grant, will form our chief reliance among the commanders of our army after 1910. That he is without the rudiments of military training, he himself has admitted on occasion. As a scout, there is no disposition in any quarter to question his brilliant ability, remarkable energy, and courage. As Mr. McKinley had no choice except to make him either a line lieutenant, a staff captain, or a brigadier-general, the country as a whole will not be disposed to cavil at the extraordinary reward bestowed upon the Kansan. At the same time Gen. Funston would probably be the first to admit that some years' experience as a major or lieutenant-colonel of regulars would have been more to his professional advantage. As it is, like other generals whom we could name, he will have to rely for a time largely upon his staff officers for the technical side of his work. It is gratifying to note that there is a great deal of criticism of the methods employed by Gen. Funston in making his capture. Deceit, forgery, trickery, and begging of food from the man you are about to entrap—these are not often American characteristics in warfare, and we need hardly point out what an outcry at Filipino perfidy and Boxer-like savagery would have arisen if an American general had been caught by such a trick. It would have been proof positive of Filipino unfitness for self-government for years to come.

President Schurman, in answer to the question what should be done with Aguinaldo, says that he would appoint him Governor of Cavité, Bulacan, or some other Tagalog province; of course on condition that he use his influence for the pacification of the country under the Government of the United States. Not only is Mr. Schurman's advice wise and helpful *per se*, but it comes with the moral authority of the present Administration, whose accredited agent he was when we first took charge of the civil administration of the islands. Whatever support Mr. McKinley's policy has had in the forum of public opinion, has been derived from the Schurman report. Nobody can say that his present advice is tainted with hostility to the Administration. The reasons with which he supports his recommendation are sound and true. Our object, he says, is peace and good government. We seek no vengeance, no punishment. Aguinaldo has shown that he possesses administrative talents of the highest order. They should be employed in the work of restoring good government.

With practically every available soldier on the way to the Philippines, the War Department, according to Washington newspapers, is having much trouble in raising the new regiments which were promised to Gen. MacArthur by July 1. That there has been a marked increase in the number of recruits enlisted is true. but the difficulty of obtaining the necessary officers to command them is worrying the officials not a little. As the numerous promotions consequent upon the reorganization act have emptied the regular line of all second lieutenants and have sent up a large number of first lieutenants, the War Department must await the return and mustering out of the volunteer regiments in order to examine their officers for transfer to the regular army. It is now hoped that the majority of these appointments may be announced by the end of May. Meanwhile the War Department is gathering together officers of higher rank from Cuba, Alaska, China, and the Philippines, which means that the regiments away from home are temporarily being stripped of officers. From Portland, Oregon, comes the tale of recruits pouring in upon one poor colonel without an officer of his regiment to help him, two or three "loaned" from other organizations being his sole aids. Evidently word that the new regiments will not be needed at once would come most opportunely for the War Department.

Congressman Hull, of Iowa and the Philippine Lumber Company, is on his way to the Philippines to see for himself how American Expansion is progressing and what other opportunities besides Government lumber contracts are open to the beneficent and self-sacrificing American civilizer. The Lumber Company, according to its head, Major Frank S. Bourns, is in a position to get all the Government contracts within its reach, but we do not believe that Mr. Hull will be content with this evidence that he is not merely a political "drone," forced to live upon his Government salary. In any event, the Government and the Philippines are certain to profit by Mr. Hull's visit to the archipelago. We look forward with pleasure to the judicial and unbiassed views of American progress in the islands with which he will supply the press and Congress on his return from the islands. One thing we are sure of, he will not be so foolish as to believe the Filipinos capable of governing themselves as long as this self-government will in any way endanger those precious Government contracts of the Lumber Company. Before leaving, Mr. Hull gave another exhibition of the way the wise statesman of to-day feathers his nest. He was the sponsor of the bill enlarging the army, and of the provision in it that volunteer officers might be appointed assistant judge-advocates-general of regulars with the rank of major. Into one of these fine berths he has now slipped his young son, Major John A. Hull of the volunteers, who has been in military life since the outbreak of the war with Spain, and who thus takes precedence over more than 2,000 officers of longer service—some by thirty years and many by twenty years.

We are rapidly losing patience with these Cubans. Their reasoning powers are curiously undeveloped. In the most crude and childish way they keep on saying that the United States cannot both "maintain" Cuban independence and demand conditions which would destroy it. This is the gist of the varying reports of the Committee of the Convention appointed to consider the Platt amendments. Really, this makes us take a lower view of the Cuban intellect than we ever had before. How can people be allowed independence or self-government who have so little conception of the great American political principle of riding two horses at once going opposite ways? Why, President McKinley tells them in the plainest way that he is only taking away their independence for the sake of making it absolutely perfect. Can't they see this? If not, why can't they take his word for it? They go on asserting in their ridiculous fashion that it must be either independence or annexation. That is their dilemma; but we could name at least fifty American statesmen and hundreds of American newspapers who would assure them that they are "all wrong" about this, that it is no dilemma at all, that there is a *tertium quid*, or a *decimum quid* if necessary. Evidently the Cubans have no head for logic, and we cannot patiently endure their silliness much longer.

The Administration's latest hope of getting the Cubans to do what it wants is pinned to the "literature" which it has had sent to the island, dealing "frankly" with our ultimatum, and explaining how Cuban independence will not really be affected by it. After this

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literature has been thoroughly circulated, and has had a "quieting effect," the President is confident that all will be as he wishes. All this, of course, proceeds on the supposition that the Cubans do not know the meaning of words and have no knowledge of international law. Their delegates have already expressed the official opinion that the American demands are tantamount to a denial of Cuban independence; but a little "literature," compounded in Washington, is expected to make them take this all back. The whole thing recalls the fabled executioner who could so neatly slice off a head that his very victim did not know it. President McKinley will assure the Cubans that he has not severed Cuban independence at the neck; but the mere reading of his ultimatum will be the pinch of snuff to set the head rolling clear from the shoulders. The Cubans may be very stupid, but they are surely "up to snuff" to the extent of knowing when their aspirations, and our promises, are decapitated.

Ex-President Cleveland has delivered two lectures before the students of Princeton University in defence of his Venezuelan message to Congress and of the policy which preceded it. He has thus compelled those who could not agree with him to take some notice of the affair. Mr. Cleveland seems to think that people who look at it in the calm light of retrospect "must acknowledge the good that has come to our nation through this episode in our history." If it is ever good for a nation that its Chief Magistrate should stir up the war spirit among its people, it must be acknowledged that Mr. Cleveland did a good thing, for he did more to that purpose than any other man of the present generation. All other Presidents of our time have sought to curb it. Even McKinley was dragged into it reluctantly, "with a stop-watch held over his head." It is not sufficient to say, as Mr. Cleveland does, that his Venezuelan policy "has established the Monroe Doctrine on lasting foundations in the eyes of the world." The late E. J. Phelps, who was a great lawyer and a warm personal friend of Mr. Cleveland, whose Minister to England he had been, took occasion to show in a public lecture, some time after the excitement had passed away, that the Monroe Doctrine had nothing to do with the matter, that Mr. Cleveland had wholly misconceived it, and that his course in the Venezuelan matter was as unjustifiable in the eye of the public law as it was indefensible in morals. It is from no desire to reopen that controversy that we call attention to what has been said on the other side by a man whose patriotism was equal to Mr. Cleveland's, and whose equipment as a lawyer was superior. Mr. Phelps's address was published by G. P. Putnam's Sons in 1896, under the title 'America and Europe—a Study of International Relations.'

On grounds of public policy the appointment of Mr. Rodenberg as Civil Service Commissioner ought to be revoked, for the simple and sufficient reason that no man ought to administer a system to which he is so hostile that he has tried to abolish it. On grounds of party consistency the argument is no less strong. Ever since the Civil-Service Law of 1883 was enacted, the Republicans have professed to be the patrons of the reform. When the motion to "starve out the Commission" by cutting off all its supplies came before the House on the 17th of February, 1900, every Republican leader of any prominence voted against it, with the single exception of that notorious spoilsman, Gen. Grosvenor of Ohio. Save for a little group of Republicans from Ohio who stood with Grosvenor, there were in all the region from the Atlantic Coast to the Missouri River, which is so overwhelmingly Republican, only fifteen Republican votes besides Mr. Rodenberg's to destroy the system. The Illinois spoilsman thus has left not even the plea of representing his party, and no excuse for him can be found.

President McKinley's instinctive use of all offices at his disposal as mere "places" is again exhibited, much to his disadvantage, in his choice of the nine Commissioners to the St. Louis Exposition. Congress provided a salary of $5,000 for each of them, and Representative Tawney of Minnesota, who had much to do with framing the legislation for this commemoration of the Louisiana Purchase, declares that it was the avowed intention to have the Commissioners represent "the leading industries of the country." Instead of that, we have a portentous list of ex-Senators and ex-Representatives, with two or three nobodies sandwiched in among them. Congressman Tawney was so indignant at the way the thing was going that, on March 22, he telegraphed the President begging him to recognize the importance of the educational exhibit at the St. Louis Fair by naming at least one Commissioner who knew something about education. President Northrup of the University of Minnesota had been prominently urged for the position, for which his fitness is uncontested. But President McKinley passed him by, and, to reward Senator Jones of Arkansas for not having defeated the Philippine amendments to the Army Bill, allowed that statesman to "name" a country storekeeper. But this does not imply that Mr. McKinley would put a slight upon education. Oh, no; he promptly appointed President Northrup a delegate to the Pan-American Congress, soon to meet in Mexico, an office which, it is officially explained at Washington, is one of "much dignity," though it is regretfully added that there is "no salary attached." If there had been, the politicians would have got it. But after this striking tribute of the President's to the higher education, one sees with what a fine show of pride and gratitude Harvard will hand him his degree of LL.D. next June.

In the cities of Cleveland, Toledo, and Columbus, Ohio, municipal elections were held on Monday, the results of which possess more than a local or even State interest. In each case the successful candidate for Mayor is a man who made his campaign on a platform which involved the attitude of the municipal authorities toward corporations engaged in public service, particularly the street-car companies, and which promised the people greater advantages from municipal oversight of such corporations in the future than in the past. The election of Tom L. Johnson in Cleveland is the most striking. He made a great fortune through the protective system as a manufacturer of steel rails, and yet he advocates free trade. He largely increased this fortune through the consolidation and development of street-car lines in more than one city by such methods as are ordinarily pursued by the promoter, and yet he advocates cheaper fares and larger concessions to the public in other ways. He is an extensive owner of real estate, and yet he was a bosom friend of Henry George, and has long been an advocate of the single tax. His line of action has been thus described by a friend: "He finds a certain state of things in society, and believes another state would be better for humanity. He advocates this other state, but because of that he need not stand by and lose any opportunity that presents itself." Mr. Johnson profited greatly by the prolongation of the factional controversy which has long waged among the Cleveland Republicans, the personally upright candidate of that party being hampered by his affiliations with the old and objectionable McKisson machine.

Platt has decided that the term of the Mayor of New York city shall be reduced from four years to two, and it is generally expected that this decision will stand at Albany. There was a good deal of doubt among students of city government as to the wisdom of the longer term when the change was made in the new charter, and since early in 1898 many people have lamented that there was no chance of getting rid of Van Wyck before the end of 1901. But the conclusion of most thoughtful men who have gone into the matter thoroughly is, that in the long run we are likely to get better mayors under a four years' term

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than under a two. What is the reason of Platt's insisting upon the two-year term? An explanation which is entitled to weight appears in that plain-spoken Republican newspaper, the *Press*, under the headline, "Blackmail, the Reason." The *Press* says that, if Tammany is to be beaten this year, it must be by a "candidate who will look with no more favor upon Platt instruments of blackmail and misgovernment than upon the Croker instruments of misgovernment and blackmail"; and, of course, if such a mayor is elected, Platt does not want him in office any longer than can be helped. This is one explanation furnished by our Republican contemporary, and the other is that "elections at long intervals do not favor the blackmailing business." The *Press* declares that this is the only reason why the Platt machine sticks to annual sessions of the Legislature, and wants Governors elected once in two years. "Blackmail!" it concludes—"that is the reason for the two-year Mayoralty term which the Platt people will try to force upon New York city at the very moment when she is on the edge of escape from Tammany Hall." Such is the brutal way in which a widely circulated Republican newspaper talks about the Republican machine.

Coincidently with Mark Twain's playfully paternal remonstrances, addressed through the *North American Review* to the Chinese missionaries, comes another rebuke to them which they will find it difficult to ignore. President Tucker of Dartmouth said in a sermon in Boston on Sunday night, under the very eaves of the American Board, that "the Christian Church has been set back, nobody knows how far, by the behavior of the missionaries in China." These words come from a man to whom all sensationalism is abhorrent, and who, as pastor of the Madison Square Church in this city, and as professor in Andover Theological Seminary, earned the right to inflict the faithful wounds of a friend, if missions can, indeed, be wounded by his serious and weighty words. President Tucker would be the last man to bring a railing accusation against missionaries as a class, and it must be only convincing evidence that has led him to speak out. The churches and missionary boards have been, in general, so tonguetied in presence of the un-Christian deeds done in China by the apostles of Christianity, that it is refreshing to have a man of President Tucker's character and influence break the silence which was getting to be little short of shameful.

Everybody's sentiments seem to be consulted in this Chinese business except those of the Chinese themselves. Great Britain is highly considerate of the susceptibilities of Russia, Russia of Japan's, Japan of Germany's, and so on round the circle; but where does China come in? She is simply the subject for vivisection. Mr. Hay has made public the note in which he advised the Chinese Government not to sign the Mantchurian treaty with Russia, or any other, pending a general settlement at Pekin. But Russia was at the same time telling China that she must sign, on pain of being considered unfriendly. What were the beset Chinese to do? The Western Powers were urging China to resist the Russian demands. But would they help her to do so with material as well as moral assistance? Nothing of the kind. Russia, however, was on the spot. Russian troops were in effective occupation of Mantchuria. A treaty would legalize their temporary stay there; without it they would stay anyhow. And guns and bayonets on the Amur must count for more than notes on the Potomac or speeches on the Thames. Yet the poor Chinaman is caught between two, and told that he will be ruined if he signs and ruined if he does not sign. Lancelot Gobbo was not more unhappily torn in his contest between conscience and the fiend.

A familiar illustration of the vitiating influence of the protectionist policy is found in the fact that its application to one industry always results in renewed demands by others for the same sort of support. No better example of this kind of "derived demand" for tariff-coddling can be found than that furnished by the recent four-days' debate in the French Senate apropos of the proposal to impose an export bounty upon cereals. Here we have unmistakable demonstration of the applicability of the general theorem to a special case. To say nothing of the absurd protectionist policy of France in general, a particularly debauching influence has been exerted by the bounty on beet sugar, and its correlative, the ship subsidy. How miserably inadequate these measures were to promote the objects at which they aimed, was thoroughly explained by Mr. David A. Wells ten years ago. But it has taken until now for their worst effects to be felt. The demand of the grain-producers that they be accorded similar aid from the public purse was no more than the natural outcome. If the growers of beet sugar are to be assisted, why not the cultivators of wheat; and if they, then why not all other agriculturists? The circle is a vicious one, and this seems to be understood by the Minister of Agriculture, who pointed out with much justice that "the result would simply be the guarantee of a minimum price for grain, which would imply genuine state socialism." He concluded by characterizing the measure as "bad in principle and dangerous in its consequences."

That the tariff poison in France is working in every part of the body politic is further demonstrated by the demand of the small traders that they, as well as others, shall be accorded a measure of protection. A good deal has already been done in the way of providing for small manufacturers by practically excluding works of an artistic and ornamental character, especially those of Italian origin, by means of a special system of import duties. Similarly, foreign workmen were excluded from certain trades about ten years ago. In many parts of France much custom has been secured by travelling traders, chiefly Italians, Swiss, and Belgians, and it would be no more than reasonable for the small business men to protest against such invasion of their territory. Just how the protective principle could be applied they are not clear. It is pointed out by the *Ami des Petits Commerçants* that "experience shows that the legislation in behalf of agriculture has been very beneficial to it." Hence the natural inference is drawn that the same would be true of other lines of effort, and this inference takes form in the statement, "We, likewise, demand that we be protected." The fallacy in the whole policy of protection is clearly suggested, apropos of the demand of the merchants, by the *Temps*, which shows that protection, if effective, must necessarily be special in its nature, and is then class legislation; while, if general, it defeats its own ends, since it only takes from one pocket what it puts into another.

Emperor William appears to have had his mental balance completely upset by his recent mischance. Another oratorical indiscretion of his Thursday has set all Germany buzzing. He seemed to be brooding on the possibility of a revolution; at any rate, his references to '48, and the duty of the troops to shoot down "insolent insurgents," should they again appear in the streets of Berlin, were most maladroit. It will be remembered that when that historic revolt against absolutism occurred, when the Revolution in Paris set Vienna and Berlin aflame, the King of Prussia really offered concessions. Instead of speaking of the rioters (the citizens behind barricades) as "insolent insurgents," he addressed them as his "dear Berliners." But a half century of blood and iron has changed all that. However, it is not likely that the Emperor's rhetorical flourish meant anything in particular, except that his mind is uneasy. Germany's immediate troubles are more likely to come from the stoutest defenders of William's divine right than from an insurrection of Radicals and Socialists. We mean the Agrarians, who are now driving the country on to a tariff war with Russia and the United States.

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THE CAPTURE OF AGUINALDO.

The efforts of the Filipinos to recover their independence have been growing rapidly weaker during the past two months, giving promise of a cessation of hostilities within some reasonable time. This movement toward peace has now been accentuated by the capture of their leader, Emilio Aguinaldo. It is the opinion of those best qualified to judge—that is, of English officers who have had experience in dealing with the Malay races—that we might have avoided all trouble in the beginning if we had treated with Aguinaldo and his followers, at the outset, as men entitled to be consulted in the government of their country. If we had extended to him the same consideration that we accorded to the Sultan of Sulu, for example, it is most probable that we should have had his coöperation, instead of his hostility. In the case of the Mohammedan ruler we recognized his authority and preserved the *status quo* even to the extent of tolerating slavery in his dominions, although it is contrary to the Constitution of the United States. It is not to be supposed that Aguinaldo would have refused everything short of absolute independence if the original attitude of friendship toward him had been maintained. If the spirit which actuated our consuls at Singapore and Hong Kong (the first American officials who came in contact with the Filipino leader), had governed our subsequent policy, there is every reason to believe that we should have saved thirty-five hundred lives of our own men and spared the maiming of as many more, not to mention the Filipino blood that we have shed during the past twenty-six months.

It is customary to speak of Aguinaldo as the Rebel Chieftain. Names are not very important now, but it is well to remember that neither he nor his followers ever owed any allegiance to us. They were in revolt against Spain when the accident of war brought us to Manila. They were fighting for independence. We destroyed the Spanish power. We sought the coöperation and aid of Aguinaldo in that enterprise. Whatever may have been the promises or implications of that alliance, nothing ever occurred that could put him in the attitude of a rebel, since there can be no rebellion where no allegiance is due. Whatever fate may be in reserve for him, he will be known to history only as a defender of liberty under desperate circumstances and against terrible odds. With little money and with scant resources in arms, ammunition, and supplies, he has maintained the fight for more than two years against an organized army of more than 65,000 men, possessing every appliance of modern warfare, and having entire command of the sea. That in this heroic endeavor he was moved solely by patriotism, and that his character was above reproach, is the testimony of officers of our own, both military and civil. Nor has his career been stained by any act of cruelty. At the time when these great responsibilities were thrown upon him he was only twenty-seven years of age. History can show few brighter examples of patient endurance, intellectual resource, and high principle. We feel sure that such virtues will stir the admiration of every lover of liberty in the world, and that the name of Aguinaldo will find a place eventually in all American hearts.

If any words of ours could reach those charged with authority in the Philippine Islands, we should urge them to treat their captive now as they ought to have treated him in the beginning. Our excuse for being in the Philippines at all has been that we were committed, by our victory at Manila, to the task of restoring order in the islands, and giving the natives as much liberty and self-government as they are capable of exercising. Now we have in our hands the one man who possesses influence throughout the country, wherever it is needed to restore peace. Every consideration of common prudence, statesmanship, and Christian charity points to his employment for the settlement of society and the restoration of good order, industry, and prosperity. The question what measure of self-government the Filipinos shall enjoy is to be determined by public opinion in the United States. In order that public opinion may have a chance to develop and find expression, there must be peace in the islands themselves. For this reason, as for the more obvious one of saving our money and our children's blood, every means to secure that boon should be employed; and surely nothing promises more hopeful results than the coöperation of Aguinaldo. The assurance of this lies in the announcement that he has taken the oath of allegiance, and so at least put an end to any deliberations on our part as to whether he shall be deported to Guam or indefinitely imprisoned. But we have yet to learn what his intentions are beyond individual submission and abstinence from further hostilities.

The fate of Aguinaldo, however, is not the matter of chief interest which his capture brings before us. The destiny of the United States is now, as it has been from the beginning, the subject of the greatest concern. The political future of the Filipinos is of little consequence to the United States, except as it is connected with the question whether the spirit of the American republic is to be preserved as it was handed down to us. Can a free people govern an empire and maintain the institutions which distinguish them from monarchical governments and privileged orders? All history says no. It has never been done for any long period. It is contrary to reason and experience to suppose that a conquering and self-aggrandizing republic can preserve liberty to itself when denying it to others. The opposition to our proceedings in the Philippines by those who are called Anti-Imperialists rests upon this consideration. They have sympathized with Aguinaldo and his fellows as they sympathize with suffering humanity in other parts of the world, but their political action has been based on the belief that a republic cannot be the oppressor of other peoples without losing its own character and hastening to its doom.

FRAUDS AT MANILA.

Next in importance to the capture of Aguinaldo, although exciting very different emotions, is the news which came from Manila on Monday that extensive frauds have been discovered in the Quartermaster's Department, that Capt. Barrows of the Thirtieth Volunteer Infantry, and a dozen or more of his subordinates, together with a number of civilians, have been arrested. Dispatches from Washington say that the Government has heard nothing about these frauds, and that Gen. Corbin thinks that the reports are exaggerated, although he has no reason for thinking so. Inasmuch as the censorship on news still exists at Manila, it is most probable that the information allowed to come through is the minimum rather than the maximum of the scandal. The story is, that large quantities of army supplies have been missing for a long time past, the losses extending back to June, 1900; that thousands of sacks of flour, together with quantities of bacon and other stores bearing the Government marks, have been found in the possession of unauthorized persons; that a Government contractor has been spending large sums of money in entertainments to army officers, that a prominent officer of the Commissary Department is accused of leading a scandalously immoral life, and so forth.

To those who recall the words spoken by Gen. Otis, more than a year ago, these revelations will not be in the least surprising. The wonder is rather that the present revelations did not come sooner. In an official order printed in the *Evening Post* of January 3, 1900, he said that cases of bribe-taking and other like misconduct by persons holding positions in the military or civil service had been reported to him; that passes had been obtained and transferred for a money consideration; that transportation in public conveyances had been extended to unauthorized persons, and that contributions had been solicited, if not exacted, from subordinates, as presents to their superior officers. "The evil," he said, "corrupting and far-reaching in its effects, appears to have reached a stage which renders its suppression with a strong hand im-

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perative." Concerning the exaction of presents to superior officers from those under them, he called attention to a law of the United States which prohibits the acceptance of such gifts, even when offered voluntarily. But this was evidently the smallest part of the corruption which he believed was going on at that time, although he was not able to put his hand on the guilty parties. Another source of corruption was discovered two months ago, when G. W. Carman, a private citizen, and a Spanish merchant named Carranza were arrested for sending supplies to the insurgents by means of passes obtained from Government officers and employees, who must have known what the passes were used for, and must have been paid for giving them.

It is with no satisfaction that we recall the evidence of former scandals in Manila, or that we comment on these fresh disclosures. One of the strongest arguments against what is called Expansion, has been the belief that our civil service is not fitted for the administration of government in distant countries. This defect was known to and appreciated by the Schurman Commission, who pointed out the necessity of radical reforms in that service. In fact, President Schurman, in a public lecture shortly after his return, declared that it was a *sine qua non* of successful government in the Philippines that the men sent thither should be selected by a rigid civil-service system, and not by favoritism or haphazard. It was an obvious incongruity, however, that we were already in the Philippines, and had no intention either of coming away or amending the civil service. On the contrary, we were deteriorating at home at the very moment when the Chairman of the Philippine Commission was insisting on improvement abroad. The President's order withdrawing from the classified list several thousands of offices which had already been placed under civil-service rules, was nearly simultaneous with President Schurman's appeal for the enforcement of a better system. The discovery of the Neely frauds in Cuba came, about the same time, to illustrate both the President's course and that which his chief adviser in Philippine matters recommended. And now we have the painful disclosure not only that there has been no improvement in civil-service methods at Manila, but that corruption has found its way into army administration also. This happens to be coincident with the President's appointment of Rodenberg as Civil-Service Commissioner, a few months after he had voted to abolish the merit system entirely.

These facts are a sufficient comment on the assumption made by many well-meaning persons that the additional responsibilities cast upon us as a "world Power" would compel us to bring our civil service up to the measure of the new requirements. We believe that some college professors held this opinion. It was the belief of others (detractors of the good McKinley) that if the American civil service was defective at home, where it was under the correction of public opinion and the watchful eye of the press, it would be worse in distant islands where these restraining influences did not exist. They maintained that a civil service cannot rise higher than its source, but must necessarily fall somewhat below the fountain-head by reason of friction and distance. But they incurred the reputation of pessimists and are still more or less under a cloud.

THE CURRENCY SITUATION IN THE PHILIPPINES.

Sound Currency furnishes an interesting documentary history of the monetary situation in the Philippines, compiled by L. Carroll Root from official reports on the subject. Conditions in the islands are not immediately alarming and are likely to present technical difficulties rather than large questions of theory, yet it is easy to see how Congress might make a bad mess of the matter if it should pursue its former policy of "going it blind" on currency questions. When the United States first took over the islands, it found there a silver standard which had succeeded a nominal gold standard about 1875, shortly after the first downward rush in the price of silver. Gold was driven out by the Mexican dollar, which was preferred to gold on account of its greater bulk and suitability for the business of the people. The use of such dollars was legalized in 1876, those in circulation being made a legal tender, although further importations of them were forbidden the following year.

At the time of the American occupation, therefore, there was no gold in circulation in the islands, and the standard was an arbitrary one, the dollar fluctuating in value partly with the price of silver bullion and partly with local demand and supply. The prohibition on importing Mexican dollars was abolished almost immediately after the advent of the American troops in Manila, in consequence of representations made by local banks concerning the increased need of coin produced by the greater volume of business. In consideration of the permission to import, the banks guaranteed a rate of exchange not worse than $2 Mexican for $1 United States. Prior to July, 1900, the banks were not called upon to maintain their guarantee, for the Mexicans remained from 1 to 7 cents less valuable than the ratio of 2 to 1. Late in July the American dollar was quoted at only $1.98 in Mexican money, and this decline in price led to a discrimination against American currency on the part of the natives, which was only partly remedied by an arrangement, effected by the Philippine Commission, for the exchange of Mexican dollars against those of the United States at the rate of 2 for 1, and a duty of 10 per cent. on the export of the latter.

There are four proposed methods of dealing with the question. The first is the familiar bimetallic policy. Waiving for the present the danger and wrong of pressing down a crown of thorns upon the Filipino brow, it is clear that any effort to maintain Mexican dollars at a $2 parity with our own might be a very dangerous undertaking, and that bimetallism cannot be thought of for an instant. Inasmuch as Mexico is a free-coinage country, the United States would be practically offering to maintain the world's product of silver at a certain price, provided only that it had passed through the Mexican mints. The Commission's efforts to "keep the ratio steady" in the Philippines have already been expensive and very troublesome. Nor would a second proposed plan —the rough-and-ready method of merely extending our system to the Philippines, without change of unit—be exactly fair. In an unprogressive country like the Philippines, it would take a long time to readjust the scale of prices and wages in terms of a unit twice as large as that hitherto prevailing.

The third and fourth modes of dealing with the problem are the establishment of a gold standard, with a unit corresponding to the peso (Mexican dollar), or worth, in other words, something like half as much as the present American dollar, and the policy of "open mints" in the Philippines, which implies the acceptance of a single silver standard, with free coinage, but without obligation to redeem. The latter suggestion has perhaps been most widely approved. But it should be observed that the old confusion, of which we are all heartily tired, but which seems to be inevitable whenever monetary discussion is aroused, between a gold standard and a gold medium of exchange tacitly underlies nearly all the statements on the subject. In considering the relative advantages of silver and gold as standards, the theoretical arguments are too familiar to need much discussion. It is enough to say that the retention of the silver standard would carry with it all the usual disadvantages—fluctuating par of exchange, instability of value, etc. The Commission itself admits that "as long as the principal currency of the islands is Mexican money, the ratio of exchange between it and United States money will be subject to constant fluctuations. . . . Every such fluctuation operates to the injury of all business interests except that of the local banks and speculators in currency."

The situation is much like that which existed a few years ago in Japan. The

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gold yen and the silver yen were of equal value in 1875. The subsequent decline of silver caused gold to pass out of circulation. In 1897 silver had fallen to one-half its former value. The gold yen had been out of circulation more than twenty years. It was unknown to the common people; when used at all, it passed as the equivalent of two silver yen. The Government adopted the gold standard and took the yen for the unit of value, but did not coin any gold pieces of one yen. The smallest gold coin is the piece of five yen, approximately equal to our quarter eagle. Then the Government made silver subsidiary to gold and legal tender for only ten yen. In this way all the evils of the currency system were cured in a very short time, and without producing any commercial confusion.

The experience of Japan points the way to currency reform in the Philippines, but it implies that the Mexican dollar "must go," and a Philippine silver coinage must take its place. But gold should be made the standard, in order to avoid the difficulties that India has suffered and is just now emerging from. The argument for preserving the silver standard proceeds either from those classes which, as the Commission suggests, are interested in its retention—that is, who profit by its fluctuations—or from uninstructed public officials like Paymaster Bates, who, speaking of a proposed free coinage of Philippine silver, magniloquently says that it would "gratify the pride of the natives, and tend to cultivate among them a national spirit and ultimately a feeling of gratitude toward this country." The sooner we get away from our present precarious position as the possible redeemer of innumerable Mexican dollars, the better.

ISTHMIAN CANAL QUESTIONS.

In the April number of the *Forum* Mr. Aldace F. Walker carefully examines the report of the latest Isthmian Canal Commission, and especially that portion which relates to the probable traffic that may be relied upon to justify the expenditure of $200,000,000, which is the latest official estimate of the cost by the Nicaragua route. Mr. Walker's paper is entirely impartial as between Nicaragua and Panama. He seems to concur with the Commission in holding that, while there are some important advantages in the Panama line, both in cost and in canal-distance, the restrictions attached to the concession by the Colombian Government and by the shareholders of the old bankrupt Panama Company are such as to make the Nicaragua route preferable to the United States, as builder and owner of an interoceanic waterway.

The question discussed in Mr. Walker's paper is whether it is worth while, in a financial point of view, to build the canal at all; in other words, whether the canal will earn enough over operating expenses to pay interest on the cost computed by the Commission. There may be reasons for building it apart from its commercial aspects. If the national defence requires it, we must build it for the same reasons that England builds great war-ships; but if we are concerned with it only as a means of transportation, then we had best look carefully to the dollars and cents, and form some idea beforehand of the income and outgo. A canal has a certain value as a means of regulating the rates of transportation by rail, and it has often been affirmed that the Erie Canal pays in this way for the cost of keeping it in repair; but it would hardly be deemed worth while to build an interoceanic canal in order to lessen the earnings of our transcontinental railways. Our legislatures can compass that end more cheaply.

Mr. Walker does not affirm that the proposed Nicaragua canal would not pay interest on its cost, plus the charges of operation and repair, but merely that no figures have been presented tending to show that it would. The only estimates given in the report of the Commission are those of the Sub-committee on Value of the Canal, given in an "Additional Report" submitted to the Senate by Senator John T. Morgan of Alabama. This report presents replies by Prof. Emory R. Johnson of the University of Pennsylvania (who was a member of the Commission) to questions "concerning the traffic of an Isthmian canal and of the Suez Canal, and the industrial effects which will result from the opening of an American interoceanic canal."

The Suez Canal has been in operation twenty-nine years. It is "in the direct route of the principal commerce of the world," that of Europe and North America with India, China, Japan, the Straits Settlement, the Philippines, and Australia. It has no competition by rail, and none by water except by an enormous détour, via the Cape of Good Hope. The canal itself is only ninety-two miles long and is without locks, as compared with one hundred and eighty-six miles and nine locks on the Nicaragua route. (Canal distance and lockage count heavily in operating expenses and in the estimate of net earnings.) The position of the Suez Canal enables it to charge $1.80 per registered ton for vessels passing through it, which is considerably more than the Nicaragua Canal could charge, except at the risk of turning freight to competing routes.

The Suez Canal in the year 1899 gave passage to 9,895,630 tons of freight, earning a gross revenue of $17,624,553. Professor Johnson estimates the tonnage of the Nicaragua Canal in 1914, the possible date of its completion, at 7,500,000 tons, and ten years later at 11,250,000 tons. These figures Mr. Walker considers fanciful. "A statement," he says, "that the Isthmian Canal will carry one-fourth as much tonnage as the Suez Canal (*i. e.*, 2,473,900 tons) would have been accepted as fully ample by many conversant with the respective commercial opportunities of the two canals." In answer to the question what rate of toll per ton he adopted in estimating the gross income of the canal, Professor Johnson replied that any toll greater than $1 per registered ton would cause vessels to the west coast of South America to pass through the Straits of Magellan, instead of the Isthmian Canal, and that this would constitute about one-third of the traffic available for the canal.

To pay interest at 4 per cent. on the cost of the canal would require a net revenue of $8,000,000 over and above running expenses. The latter, Mr. Walker thinks, cannot be less than $2,000,000 in a country subject to torrential rains like Nicaragua. It may be four times as great. Thus a gross revenue of $10,000,000 would be required to pay 4 per cent. interest on cost. It is not necessary, however, that 4 per cent. should be paid. The Government can borrow at 2½ per cent. Therefore, it could accept a gross return of $7,000,000, and have $5,000,000 net after paying an assumed charge of $2,000,000 for operation. Can this smaller sum be expected?

Professor Johnson says that 3,426,752 tons of the maritime commerce of the United States during the year 1899 "could have used the canal to advantage," but as the ports of shipment and of entry are not given, there is no way to determine whether this commerce would actually have taken that route, if it had then been open. If imports of tea and silk from China and Japan are included—imports that now come by steamer to Pacific ports and thence eastward by rail—Mr. Walker says very little of such traffic will ever leave the railroads. "The roads may have to reduce the rates, but they may be relied upon to keep the business." The same may be said of traffic going the other way. The railroads will never allow it to escape from them. They can send cotton goods half way across the Pacific before a ship loading at Boston or New York could emerge from the western terminus of the Nicaragua Canal. Another element of the problem adverse to the canal is the fact that the greater part of our traffic with the Orient originates or ends in the interior of the country—where the railway can pick it up or deliver it at the door of the producer or the consumer. No such traffic originating west of the Alleghanies or north of the Gulf States will go or come via the Isthmian Canal. The same is true of the trade of California.

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Very little of that which is now hauled by rail will go by any other route. Mr. Walker considers Professor Johnson's estimate of 3,426,752 tons of United States freight as "simply incredible," and his further estimate of 3,346,377 tons of European trade with the west coast of America as equally visionary. Of the latter amount, 2,425,932 tons were to and from Chili, which, being mostly handled by sailing vessels, would continue to pass through the Straits of Magellan.

Mr. Walker's estimate is that possibly 2,000,000 tons, at an outside figure, would actually use the canal at one-half the Suez rates of toll. This might suffice for operating expenses, but would allow nothing for interest on the investment. Of course, Mr. Walker's bias as an officer of a transcontinental railway must be allowed for, in estimating the value of his communication, but it is something which calls for a reply from the Congressmen who sought to commit the Government to an expenditure of $200,000,000 after half a day's debate.

JUDICIAL OATHS.

The fuss which the Catholics are making in England over the coronation oath, and the small amount of interest apparently taken in the matter by the general public, show how much of its strength as a defender of popular institutions the official oath has lost. No obligatory oath is of much more value to-day as a guarantee of anything, or a protection against anything, than the coronation oath in England.

The truth is, that the importance attached by either one party or the other to modifying the oath or not modifying it is a good illustration of the width of the gulf which separates us from the Middle Ages. Nothing used to seem easier to the men of that period than to safeguard an institution or a custom by surrounding it with oaths. Our reverence for what is called "the sanctity of an oath" has enormously diminished, but in its day it was a very powerful defence. The idea that the Almighty would help men to keep their promises, or would punish them for breaking them, was a deeply rooted belief of the earlier Christians, and it seems as if we ought to do something to keep it alive; yet the whole trend of modern jurisprudence has been in the direction of weakening it, probably because it was so frequently used for purposes of oppression, or in order to "get even" with one's enemies.

The oath which graduates of the universities had to take was clearly looked upon by those inside the sacred ring as one of the great defences of the English faith and morals, and its abolition as a tremendous concession; but since that period everybody recognizes the gain to both morals and education. This oath, which has until recently barred the entrance to universities to Nonconformists, really divided the English people into two nations, between whom not only was there no sympathy, but even the growth of sympathy was repressed, both by law and by social usage.

I think it may be safely said that the dissenting clergy in England preserved pretty faithfully the scholarly traditions of their Puritan ancestors, but they were less successful in meeting the cultivated social odium which attended the name of Dissenter. The ordinary language of the Cambridge and Oxford student regarding nonconforming ministers was one of contempt or defiance. Indeed, contempt for Dissenters was one of the earliest parts of the education of an English boy of the upper classes. No one who has ever frequented an Oxford common-room in the last forty years, and listened to the conversation there after dinner, but must have heard lots of contempt and ridicule heaped upon dissenting ministers—even the way in which they tied their white cravats was not above criticism, and, presumably, they were ignorant of Greek and Latin. Every one remembers Sydney Smith's joke in one of his later illnesses, when he answered an inquiry after his health by saying that "he was so weak that, if one gave him a knife, he would not be able to stick it into a Dissenter."

Those who think that this assertion that the oath divided the English people into two nations is an exaggeration, must remember that the age when invincible prejudice is most easily formed is youth, and that opinions about Church or State take root more readily during the period of a man's education than later. Probably in this respect matters were not made any worse by the reservation of the universities for Episcopalians, but they were certainly not made any better. The social prejudice was bad enough, but it was embittered by the fact that the Dissenters were shut out from any participation in the advantages of the great seats of learning.

I was once stopping at a country house in Devonshire, where among my fellow-guests were the Mayor of a Scotch town and his wife. Our host was a distinguished Episcopalian, and a very liberal man. Talk turning upon Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress,' the Scotch lady joined in the talk, showing her familiarity with this popular work. Remembering, however, that her host was not of Bunyan's stripe of religion, she hastily added that "Bunyan's book was the only work of a Dissenter she had ever read." The fact is that the term "Dissenter" has been, since 1688, a term of reproach, which is somewhat ludicrous, as it indicates only dissent from the English Church.

Another oath of somewhat the same character is the American Custom-house oath, which divides the people into two parties—the traveller and the Custom-house inspector; the traveller swears to the list of his effects, and the inspector promptly shows he thinks he may have perjured himself by searching his trunks. This submission to the charge of perjury from his own paid servants doubtless tends to break down character, and is as much a blot on the social conditions of our own times as the test-oath has been in England ever since 1688.

E. L. G.

THE PLIGHT OF MAINE.

BRUNSWICK, Me., March 30, 1901.

On the 13th of September, 1900, two days after the State election in Maine, Hon. Joseph H. Manley, then Chairman of the Republican State Committee, gave out, through the columns of the Lewiston *Journal*, an open letter calling attention to three things which, in his opinion, "the Republican party must do in order to retain control" in the State. The first was to revise the tax laws. The third was to abolish the fee system. Of the second he said:

"(2.) We must insist that the present prohibitory law shall be strictly and rigidly enforced in every section of the State. The people have a right to any law they desire. They are the sovereigns. They have, whenever they had the opportunity, voted overwhelmingly in favor of prohibition. I agree that many of our best men think the cause of temperance would be better promoted by a local-option high-license law. If the majority of people so think, that should be the law of the State; and I can see no possible objection to again submitting to the people the question, which would have to be presented in a proposition to repeal the present Constitutional provision. But until that is done and the people vote to repeal it, we have a plain duty to perform, and that is the enforcement of the law. The condition to-day is, that we are having a practical license law, because in many, if not all, the counties in the State it is the practice to indict once or twice a year every man who pays to the United States a special retail liquor-dealer's tax. He is indicted on that fact, and in 99 cases out of 100 settles and pays what is demanded of him. This, I admit, swells the receipts of the county treasury, but I submit that it is not the wise and proper course to pursue."

Mr. Manley's position as titular chief of the Republican party in Maine and Speaker-to-be of the State House of Representatives, naturally gave to his utterances great weight in the public estimation—greater, probably, than just at that time would have been attached to the words of any other public man in the State; and speculation immediately became rife as to what this unexpected deliverance might mean. Advocates of resubmission promptly hailed it as a harbinger of success for their cause; the advocates of prohibition quite generally interpreted it as a warning that the support of the Republican machine would no longer be certainly counted upon, while to many people Mr. Manley's declaration appeared only in the light of a shrewd political move, intended to forestall public opinion and gain for the Republicans the credit for any genuine reform in liquor legislation which might be inaugurated by the Legislature the following winter.

It soon began to appear, however, that if resubmission was a bonafide part of the Republican programme, it was not going to be altogether easy to carry it out. To begin with, Mr. Manley himself, in a second letter published September 19, emphatically denied that he had written in his previous letter "a sentence, line, or word" in favor of resubmission. Then the Woman's Christian Temperance Union promptly put itself on record as unalterably opposed to a change in the Constitutional status. Other circumstances also operated to obstruct the path of the resubmissionists, the chief of these, perhaps, being the election in Cumberland County—the most populous county in the State, with Portland as the county seat—of a radical Prohibition candidate for Sheriff, and the consequent likelihoood that, in that county at least, the prohibitory law would be more vigorously enforced than it had been for a number of years. Mr. Manley's letters, however, together with the Cumberland County episode, had made the question of prohibition the most prominent matter, so far as general public attention was concerned, to come before the Legislature; and while it was generally felt that tax reform

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and the abolition of official fees were matters of great moment, it was suspected that even the questions of taxation and the fee system might be found to be, like many other public questions in Maine, strangely entangled, and in devious and unexpected ways, with the question of the enforcement or modification of the prohibitory laws.

What happened can be briefly told. The message of the Governor, non-committal on most important topics, was non-committal on the subject of prohibition also, merely repeating the well-worn platitudes about the benefits of temperance and the services of the law "in stimulating and promoting that intelligent and vigorous public opinion which is the support of all effective law." A bill providing for the resubmission of the prohibitory amendment to the Constitution was defeated in the House on March 14 by a vote of 34 to 84; and on the following day the Senate, by a vote of 3 to 22, declared itself to be of the same mind. For at least two years more, then, Maine will continue to appear in the diminishing list of prohibitory States, and the outcome of the vote at Augusta will doubtless be widely proclaimed as a victory for temperance and moral reform. It would be hard to say which class is the more gratified at the result—the radical Prohibitionists, officially represented by the Woman's Christian Temperance Union and an organization known as the Civic League, or the liquor-dealers, who can now continue their illegal business under substantially the same conditions as heretofore, and with all the advantages of low license and assured public support.

One can hardly avoid speculating with much seriousness as to just why resubmission should again have failed. It certainly is not for lack of knowledge. So far as the practical working of prohibition in Maine is concerned, the law has long since been seen to be not only a farce, but the greatest source of social and political corruption in the State as well. Any one who knows anything about Maine, and cares only to tell the whole truth, knows that the prohibitory law is everywhere treated with contempt, that the violation of it is expected by the public and winked at by the officials sworn to enforce it, and that it carries in its train a mass of perjury, bribery, lying, and evasion from which no community and no class of society escapes. The spasms of virtuous reform which attack the larger towns and cities from time to time have no considerable public support, and serve only to reveal the firm hold which the liquor business has upon the real sources of influence. Even the agencies established under authority of law for the sale of liquor for medicinal, scientific, and manufacturing purposes are, in too many cases, little better than legalized saloons, save that the liquor sold is commonly not drunk upon the premises. And yet a law whose every accompaniment is rottenness and stench is still further riveted upon the State by overwhelming votes in the State Legislature, and Maine is left to deal with one of the most difficult of social problems, the control of the liquor traffic, by the sole means of legislation which can be neither enforced nor repealed.

I know of no more striking example of inability on the part of well-meaning people to see things in their normal relations than is presented by the persistent and ceaseless agitation of prohibition in Maine by such temperance organizations as the Woman's Christian Temperance Union and the Civic League; and the share of credit which they claim for the recent victory ought not to be denied them. Truly their eyes are holden that they cannot see. Nor do I know of any State in which an alleged "public sentiment," whose tangible embodiment one would have great difficulty in discovering, is whirled over the heads of public men with such disastrous effect. One hardly knows which should be feared the least, a fanatical devotion to an exploded and mischievous theory, or a cringing fear of an inarticulate bogy; yet few Republican legislators or politicians in Maine have for years dared to face either of them.

In the meantime, there are not lacking those who view the effects of the continuance of present conditions with grave concern. With corruption deeply characterizing the dealings of the State with the liquor interests, it seems to many inevitable that there should be some weakening of moral tone in other directions as well. With the violation of a well-known law either open and notorious or generally recognized and winked at, it is not surprising that all laws affecting personal habits and tastes, or demanding a somewhat particular conformity, are less easily enforced, or that wealthy and influential persons and corporations should be encouraged to demand special consideration and immunity. I have heard many teachers express their conviction that the laxity in the treatment of the prohibitory law was largely responsible for a weakened respect for law, whether State statutes or municipal by-laws, among the young people of the State. Superficially, too, there seems to be an increase, in rural Maine, of the grosser and more brutal forms of crime and of crimes whose primary inspiration is drink. Worst of all, however, is the growth of a good-natured indifference to the whole situation, a passive acquiescence in general disregard of the law so long as the disregard be not too flagrant, and a waning interest in serious public discussion of the question. The most ominous thing about prohibition in Maine is that the people simply do not care.

One thing, however, the legislative experience of the past winter has clearly demonstrated. So far as political responsibility is concerned, the continuance of present conditions in Maine is directly and chiefly attributable to the Republican party. Everybody knows that, for all practical purposes, there is but one party in Maine. The Republicans have overwhelming majorities in the Legislature and control most of the important offices, both State and local. There being no political opposition, there is also no political discussion, and public interest in either State or national questions is languid. Whatever is done, accordingly, is done by the Republican machine, and it is to that agency that responsibility must be ascribed. As Mr. Manley himself said in his famous open letter, "We have an overwhelming majority in the next Legislature, and will [shall] be held responsible for whatever legislation is enacted, and responsible for what we fail to enact that the people demand shall be enacted." So far as the proceedings at Augusta were concerned, however, expressions of opinion from Republican leaders on the question of resubmission were conspicuously lacking, nor was there anything more than the merest pretence that the action of the Legislature registered the will of "the people." To assume that the Republican leaders are not perfectly aware of the utter rottenness of the whole business would be to credit them with less than average intelligence; yet nothing can be surer than that, unless the present prohibitory situation in Maine is speedily mended or ended, it were better for the Republican machine that a millstone were hanged about its neck, and that it were drowned in the depths of the sea. WILLIAM MACDONALD.

GENERAL THIARD.

PARIS, March 13, 1901.

The 'Diplomatic and Military Recollections' of Gen. Thiard, just edited by M. Léonce Lex, an ex-pupil of the École des Chartes, may be added to the ever-increasing mass of documents concerning the history of the nineteenth century. A biography of Gen. Thiard had already been published in 1869, by Dr. Chaudet at Chalon-sur-Saône. The General belonged to the province of Burgundy. His name was Auxonne-Marie-Théodose de Thiard, Count de Bissy; but he wished to be called simply "Gen. Thiard." He was born on the 3d of May, 1772, in the palace of the Tuileries (his father was a general, lieutenant-general of the province of Languedoc, Governor of Auxonne and of the palace of the Tuileries). He was educated among the Philosophers and the Encyclopædists, all intimate friends of his father—Condorcet, Marmontel, Crébillon, Chamfort, Suard, D'Alembert, Diderot. As a child he saw much of the old court. At the age of sixteen he was made a supernumerary sub-lieutenant in the infantry regiment of the King. When the Revolution broke out, his regiment was disbanded, and he betook himself to Worms, which was at the time the headquarters of the army of Condé. He left no notes on his agitated life as an émigré, and we only know that he quitted the little army of Condé when it entered the service of Russia; that he came back to France; that, after the *coup d'état* of the 18th Fructidor, he emigrated again and rejoined the army of Condé, and remained in the regiment of Enghien dragoons till the end of 1799. In October, 1800, he returned definitively to France, and obtained his erasure from the list of the émigrés. He stayed quietly in his department of Saône-et-Loire, where he was elected Councillor-General and became a candidate for the Legislative Body. He was not elected, however; his adversaries reproached him with having "his boots still covered with the mud of Coblentz."

Napoleon was not hostile to the émigrés. The administrative capacity of Thiard had been brought to his attention. Thiard's acquaintance with the famous Madame Récamier also gave him a certain prestige. When the First Consul became Emperor, he chose Thiard as one of his chamberlains. It was in this capacity that Thiard figured at the coronation of Napoleon in Notre Dame, at the coronation of the Emperor at Milan, as King of Italy, and that he fulfilled an important mission at the courts of the Elector of Baden, the Elector of Bavaria, and of the Duke of Bavaria. The 'Diplomatic and Military Recollections' relate to this period of 1804 to 1806. They were for a long time in the hands of M. Thiers, who used them in his 'History of the Consulate and the Empire,' and the manuscript is now in the archives of the Department of Saône-et-Loire.

The 'Souvenirs' begin with an account of

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a great review held by Napoleon on the 20th of January, 1805, in the Court of the Tuileries, when Thiard was entering on his functions of Chamberlain. After the review he was presented by Talleyrand to the Emperor. "You are from Macon?" "No, Sire, but I belong to the Department of Saône-et-Loire." "You were in the army of Condé?" "Yes, Sire, but it was disbanded." "I know that you served your princes with much devotion; I expect the same devotion on your part. Now take the oath." When the interview was over, Talleyrand said to Thiard, "Now, do as well as you can"; and Thiard entered upon his duties, for which he was entirely unprepared. He found favor with the Emperor, who had long conversations with him, often on the subject of Queen Marie Antoinette, "but superficially, and without going deep into the subject; but I had no difficulty in seeing that he had great prejudices against her."

"People," says he, "generally attribute to the Emperor a despotic and absolute character, suffering no objection or contradiction, ready to answer with a disagreeable word the smallest observation. He had, like everybody, moments of irritation, but I never noticed that he uttered an offensive word. He got angry when mistakes were committed that compromised the safety of the army or the interest of the country; never when they were personal to himself. . . . In his drawing-room his amenity was perfect, and he showed sometimes a gayety of which, from the accounts given of him, he was not thought susceptible."

Napoleon embraced all possible subjects in his conversations. He was fond of the theatre, and willingly gave his opinion on the plays he saw. "As for music," says Thiard, "it was another thing; he did not understand it any more than chemistry. The two airs which he often and habitually hummed were, 'Will you love your father-in-law?' and the 'Chant du Départ' [Méhul's famous song]. The first showed that his mind was quiescent, the second that great thoughts agitated his imagination." Talleyrand seldom appeared before eleven o'clock; his arrival was generally the signal for the retreat of the guests. The Emperor and his Minister of Foreign Affairs talked together quietly and then left for the inner apartments.

Many are the details which Thiard gives concerning the Emperor's conversations. He tried to form for himself a just view of the character of the man who had become the arbiter of Europe. Some of his opinions will seem rather paradoxical, but deserve to be related:

"As I never," he says, "allowed myself to be intimidated or disconcerted by him, I had greater facility than others for judging him. I am convinced, for instance, that he always saw with deep regret such frequent ruptures of the Continental peace; that he would have liked to maintain it; that all his hostile thoughts were directed against England; that the war against that nation was the only one which he continued without repugnance—he called it the holy war."

Thiard also reached the conviction that all that Napoleon did for the reëstablishment of the Catholic ceremonies and to give influence to the Church was suggested to him by faith rather than by political reasons. The grounds of this opinion, however, do not seem very good. To be sure, Napoleon was very anxious to have the Pope at his coronation, but he took the crown from the Pope's hand and put it himself on his head. Again, he did not close the convents in Italy, but he did not reopen them in France. Thiard thinks that Napoleon made a fatal mistake in creating a new aristocracy. He goes so far as to say that "if the Emperor did not fulfil the great mission which Providence seemed to impose on him, if he did not entirely change the political and social state of Europe, it was, if I am not mistaken, because he was born a nobleman, a Catholic, and a Corsican."

Thiard accompanied the Emperor during the greater part of the famous campaign of 1805, which will be remembered by the capitulation of Ulm, the entry of the French army into Vienna, and the victory of Austerlitz. Napoleon conferred upon him the brevet of captain of the mounted chasseurs of the guard. He employed him at times as an aide-de-camp, at times as a diplomat. Napoleon was much attached to Prince Eugène Beauharnais, whom he made Viceroy of Italy. He wished to find a wife for him, and cast eyes first on the daughter of the Elector of Bavaria, a very distinguished princess; but she was engaged to the heir of the Duchy of Baden, and moreover, her mother, the Electress of Bavaria, was a bitter enemy of France and of Napoleon. Napoleon took advantage of the knowledge which Thiard had been able to acquire of the little German courts while he was in Condé's army, and gave him a mission to Germany, with the double object of breaking off the marriage between the Prince of Baden and the Princess Augusta of Bavaria and of marrying the Prince of Baden to Stéphanie de Beauharnais. Thiard was a clever negotiator; he used the influence of the Countess of Hochberg, who was morganatically married to the reigning Elector of Baden. He was the bearer of Napoleon's treaties of alliance with Baden and Bavaria, and he fulfilled his mission to the satisfaction of the Emperor. At one point he was less fortunate. Napoleon wished also to marry his brother Jerome to Princess Catharine of Würtemberg; but the American marriage was, for a time at least, an obstacle that could not be surmounted.

In February, 1807, Thiard resigned all his functions near the Emperor, for reasons which remain unknown to us; he was of a choleric disposition, and perhaps allowed himself too much familiarity with his sovereign. What is certain is, that there was a violent scene between them, in consequence of which Thiard left for his country-seat at Vaulry, where he remained quietly till France was invaded; he then enlisted in the National Guard. When Louis XVIII. became King, in 1814, he made Thiard *maréchal de camp* (the equivalent of general), Knight of Saint Louis, and Commander of the Legion of Honor. On Napoleon's return from the island of Elba, the King gave Thiard the command of the Department of Aisne, and ordered him to march against the two brothers and Generals Lallemand, who with their troops had assumed the tricolor cockade. Thiard refused, and told the Duke de Berry that he had been so unfortunate in his youth as to turn his arms against his compatriots, but that he would never use them except against the enemies of his country. By a phenomenon which is explained by the incidents of his life, the soldier of Condé's army had become a liberal; he became in his Department, during the Restoration, the representative of the liberal cause. His Parliamentary career extended from 1820 to 1848; in 1830 he espoused the cause of the Revolution, as he was a friend of Lafayette, of Manuel, of Benjamin Constant, of Laffitte, of Casimir Périer. After the Revolution of 1848 he was not reëlected Deputy; he fell ill, and died on the 28th of June, 1852, at the age of eighty-one.

Besides his 'Souvenirs,' he left a Journal of the army of Condé from 1791 to 1793, which belonged to his grandson the Marquis d'Étampes, and which was given by him to the archives of the Department of Saône-et-Loire. It is probable that it will some day be published.

Correspondence.

THE OLD ORDER CHANGETH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Am I wrong in looking for a causal relation between three expressions of opinion which have recently come under my notice?

(1.) The very illuminating address by President Schurman in the hall of the University of Michigan last evening closed with the impressive statement that the Philippine entanglement had produced a fundamental change in American ideals; that the America of the nineteenth century is a thing of the past, and this whether the Filipino is to come to us as a colonist or as a brother.

Without pushing the question whether this acceleration is to set the pace for the future, so that with every new administration the America of Washington and Lincoln will be put one step further behind us, the more important question remains, whether the Philippine business is to be regarded as cause or effect. The Filipino has given us a new America, which all accept, many rejoice in. How did it come about?

(2.) I was recently stating to a friend the position of President Hadley in his paper in the last number of the *Educational Review*, that science and history should come late in a student's course, and be preceded by the largest possible studies in language and mathematics. Entirely right and wise, surely. But this brings it about that, in the public schools, courses in science and history must be repeated in every department, or great numbers will fail to get any science or history; and as this works a hardship for those who look forward to a complete education, there must be separate schools for those who are preparing for college. "Yes," said my friend, "that's it; that's it. Yard them off. Let's have classification according to affinities. I want my children to be educated with those among whom they are to live. There is a class of people in this country who will, for the distinction it confers, send their children to college, whether they want to go or not. Give them preparatory schools. Then there are those who, with unimportant exceptions, cannot afford to send their children to college. Let them have their schools. Hadley is right." Of course he misapprehends President Hadley's position, and is wrong as to the kind of people who go to college. But here is a democrat of democrats, an old-line abolitionist, who in fifteen years has come to want class schools, negro disfranchisement, and all that. How did it come about? And the case is typical.

(3.) And now a letter from a lady of much reading and observation: "You scientific people have done your work only too well.

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You have made us all care more about the reign of law than the reign of justice and humanity. You have made it appear that fine manners, self-restraint, tenderness, truth, even justice itself, are so many weights in the struggle of life, a struggle in which only the fit—that is, the strong, and those who have laid aside every weight—can survive." And she goes on to enumerate the many things in modern life which may well afflict tender and pious souls, emphasizing patriotism with a mailed fist, and growing class distinctions. Is there something in this? Patten, in his 'Development of English Thought,' says that science has shown little power to change the ideals of the race; little to alter national thought by direct means, though it has great power in creating economic conditions and thus modifying the national thought. Is he right?

E. A. STRONG.

YPSILANTI, MICH., March 27, 1901.

FUNSTON'S CHRISTIAN PROCEEDING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It would appear that the capture of Aguinaldo was effected by treachery involving the use of false uniforms and a forged document. Supposing (and I apologize to every British officer for making the supposition) that the British in South Africa had succeeded in capturing Botha or De Wet by means of a proceeding of this kind, what a noble chorus of righteous indignation and reprobation would have arisen at once from the whole press of Europe, with that of the United States in loud and full unison! If the United States authorities are not a little more fastidious about some of their proceedings, the mud-throwers of the European press, when they get tired of their English target, may perhaps set up an American one for a change.—Yours sincerely,

R. C. ALLISON.

10 PEEL ST., ST. JOHN, N. B., March 30, 1901.

"MODERN CHRISTIANITY" AND MODERN PROPHETS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION.

SIR: Mr. Herbert Spencer is continually reminding us of the undying significance of that ultimate religious verity, "Force persists." We are reminded by "E. L. G.," in his just and timely arraignment of "Modern Christianity" in a recent number of the *Nation*, that Righteousness persists.

No one who has read his Bible closely, especially the Old Testament, can fail to recognize that no small spark of the old prophetic fire burns in "E. L. G." He has done just what Elijah or Jeremiah would do if they were living among us to-day—protested with might and main against the devil and his doings. When Satan has a pious streak, as he often does, and, arrayed in solemn black, appears in the pulpit full of zeal for the spread of the gospel at home and in heathen lands, he cannot deceive wise old watch-dogs of righteousness like "E. L. G." They know the devil when they see him, and bark acordingly.

"E. L. G." has all the pathetic indignation of a true prophet of the Lord. It always was lonely business living up on Horeb's heights, and is still. So we can readily understand why "E. L. G." strikes the rather despairing tone, *Derelictus sum ego solus*. He says: "I have lately searched history as well as I am able, to get hold of some piece of wickedness which Christianity has impeded or prevented"—an exasperating enterprise certainly! The connection tells us plainly that by Christianity "E. L. G." means "Modern Christianity," *i. e.*, that which is to be held responsible for "Steve" Elkins and recent doings in Cuba, in the Philippines, and in China. "E. L. G." reminds us of Schiller ("Meine Glaube"):

"Welche Religion ich bekenne? Keine von allen
Die du mir nennst.—Und warum keine? Aus Religion."

We do not need to take a despairing view of the Christianity of Moses and the prophets and of Christ and the apostles while such men are among us. That they stand outside of the conventional sheep-fold of the Church and say very severe things, simply puts them in the same company with the prophets, with Socrates, and with Christ, who all did the same. That that very un-Christlike thing "Modern Christianity" calls forth modern prophets like "E. L. G." is only one more proof of the undying persistence of Righteousness among us.

But alas! in spite of "E. L. G." and all the prophets, it is to be feared that things will go on pretty much as at present, for two reasons, perhaps—partly *stultitia hominum*, probably also *patientia Dei*.

CHARLES EDWARD STOWE.

HEIDELBERG, March 18, 1901.

LYNCHING FOR ANY CAUSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *North American Review* for February, Marion L. Dawson furnishes an article under the caption, "The South and the Negro." Its object apparently is to present a sort of apology for lynching—an evil which he makes attributable to but one cause. But, notoriously, lynching as a mode of execution has extended its application to other crimes than the particular one for which it was originally intended. As instances, I have in mind, among others, the negro who, a short while ago, was burned at the stake in Texas, his crime being murder; the negro who was lynched at Broxton Bridge in this State, his offence being theft (stealing a Bible); the well-known case of the Baker family, also in this State, in which a negro Postmaster proved obnoxious to the community, and, in consequence, suffered the usual penalty of death at the hands of a mob. Another case, of recent occurrence, is the lynching of a woman in Tennessee for being insolent in her reply to one of the members of the mob which was in search of her brother for stealing. Not one of these offences was what is known as "the usual one." Apologists for this summary mode of punishment may well consider the far-reaching consequences involved.

J. R. H.

BEAUFORT, S. C., March 23, 1901.

A SECOND DISCLAIMER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is necessary that the undersigned inform the general public that the use made of their names by the "American College of Sciences," doing business at Philadelphia, in advertising an "advanced course in personal magnetism, hypnotism, and suggestion by seven distinguished specialists," is wholly unauthorized and unwarranted. The public is warned against the trick of being thus led to believe that we concur in the statements made in this advertising scheme concerning the scientific facts and the practical uses of hypnotic influences. The undersigned believe that the practice of hypnotism should be restricted to a most guarded application.

Our names and the "courses" advertised in this "advanced course" are derived from articles which each of the undersigned was requested, individually, by the "New York State Publishing Company" of Rochester, N. Y., to prepare for a scientific exposition of the facts and principles of hypnotism and allied phenomena. The compilation appeared from the press late in 1900. Had the undersigned had any intimation whatsoever that this second and unauthorized use of the articles was to be made, viz., as a part of a course of instruction in the general subject, they would have absolutely refused to contribute to the compilation in the first instance. The responsibility of each of the undersigned goes no farther than the contents of the original article he contributed to the compilation.

This disclaimer is to be taken in accord with the one appearing in *Science*, November 30, 1900, p. 850, and in the *Psychological Review*, January, 1901, p. 63. The names here undersigned appear in an advertising sheet circulated by the "College," which omits the names appearing under the first disclaimer.

(Signed)

EDWARD FRANKLIN BUCHNER,
New York University.
A. KIRSCHMANN,
University of Toronto.
JAMES ROLAND ANGELL,
University of Chicago.
A. M. BLOILE,
Ohio State University.
EDWIN DILLER STARBUCK,
Leland Stanford Junior University.

A SLIP OF THE PEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of W. J. Stillman's Autobiography (No. 1865) there is one slight error. You speak of him as correspondent of the New York *Herald* during the Vienna Exposition of 1873. I was correspondent of the *World* at that time, and knew nearly all the American newspaper men in Vienna. The principal *Herald* representatives were Young and Jackson. Stillman, Bayard Taylor, and E. V. Smalley were correspondents of the *Tribune*. I had known Taylor before, and through him became acquainted with Stillman. We lunched together nearly every day for many weeks. It was one of my great pleasures to get Stillman to discuss the paintings in the art gallery. He would not relish, I suspect, your connecting him with the *Herald* in 1873, for that newspaper's treatment of Vienna was below its usual standard.

J. M. H.

[Our correspondent is quite right. Mr. Stillman's connection with the *Herald* came later.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

Prof. Wm. H. Carpenter, head of the Germanic department of Columbia University, is-

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sues an appeal for the "hearty coöperation of the descendants of the early Dutchmen"—"settlers on Long Island, in New Jersey, and up through the valleys of the Hudson and the Mohawk and the radiating country"—in gathering up the words, phrases, and nursery rhymes left behind in the language of to-day. Professor Carpenter asks that such relics be communicated to him, written in an orthography representing their sound as learned by the collector, and with precise indications of date and locality of acquisition.

During the coming year McClure, Phillips & Co. will publish here the Dent "Temple Molière," in the French text of MM. Despois and Mesnard, beginning directly with "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme" and "Le Médecin malgré Lui." They will also bring out in the companionable Temple form (long ago found fitting for it) Heine's 'Buch der Lieder.'

E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish during the spring 'Through Siberia,' by J. Stadling; 'In Tuscany,' by Montgomery Carmichael; 'China,' a history of diplomacy and commerce from the earliest times, by E. H. Parker; 'Frescoes in the Sixtine Chapel in Rome,' by Evelyn Marsh Phillips, illustrated; 'Our [English] Naval Heroes,' edited by G. E. Marindin; 'The British Thoroughbred Horse,' by W. Allison, M.A.; 'The Evolution of the Bible,' by H. W. Hoare, B.A.; and 'Trusts and the State,' by Henry Macrosty, Fabian Series No. 1.

R. H. Russell will issue immediately Dürer's sixteen designs of 'The Apocalypse,' with accompanying Scriptural text; 'The American Stage,' a pictorial souvenir of the leading actors and actresses of the day; 'The Rose of Dawn: A Romance of the South Sea,' a narrative poem by Helen Hay; 'Racing Rhymes, and Other Verses,' by Adam Lindsay Gordon, with illustrations; and single-story classics for children in "Wayside" edition, Kingsley's 'Perseus,' Hawthorne's 'Paradise of Children,' etc.

'School Hygiene,' by Edward R. Shaw, Dean of the faculty of pedagogy in the New York University, is in the press of Macmillan Co.

Among the spring announcements of Dodd, Mead & Co. are 'Turner and Ruskin,' a quarto volume of examples, edited by Frederick Wedmore; 'The Journal of Hugh Gaine,' edited by Paul Leicester Ford; 'Empresses of France,' by Miss H. A. Guerber; 'Masters of Music,' by Miss Anna Alice Chapin; and 'Life and Sport on the Pacific Slope,' by Horace Annesley Vachell.

The reissue of Mr. W. S. Gilbert's 'The "Bab" Ballads' (New York: R. H. Russell), with the author's Thackerayesque illustrations reduced without injury, is a very pleasing advertisement of the good taste and workmanship of the "Wayside Department" of the Cambridge (Mass.) University Press. The gray and white binding is to be commended along with the rest of this taking pocket companion, whose good wine of humor needs no bush.

No excuse for reprinting Puckle's 'The Club; or, A Grey Cap for a Green Head' (London: Freemantle & Co.; New York: Truslove, Hanson & Comba) is so valid as the incidental reproduction of "embellishments cut in wood from designs by John Thurston." It is from this side that Mr. Austin Dobson appears to have been drawn in for an introduction; but he quotes without challenge the claim of the preface to the edition of 1823, first containing these engravings by Bewick's pupils Nesbit, White, and Harvey, among others—"Every line of the drawing is marked out upon the block by the designer exactly as it appears upon the paper." If this were so, however, it would not be possible to detect the mannerisms of the artists named, as it is; to say nothing of the occurrence of pure white line (see *Envioso* for example, p. 28, which we take to be Harvey's work, or *Zany*, p. 99, signed by Nesbit). Altogether the illustrations are interesting for their period, and the vignettes are charming; the volume is prettily made.

A handy pocket reprint of 'Selections from the Prose Tales of Edgar Allan Poe' (Macmillan) follows, by permission, the Stedman-Woodberry text. There is a portrait, an anonymous biographico-critical introduction of good quality, and notes. The edition is one to be recommended.

Mr. Thomas E. Watson's 'Thomas Jefferson' in the "Beacon Biographies" of Small, Maynard & Co., Boston, is written from the point of view of Georgia, with frank intention to omit controverted topics. Hence Jefferson's views on slavery are not developed beyond his early effort to allow manumission within the State. The 'Notes on Virginia' is pronounced profitable reading yet, but not for that which reflected the chief lustre on its author—the denunciation of slaveholding. The classical passage on this subject will have to be sought elsewhere, and will be found in Mr. Henry Childs Merwin's praiseworthy volume in the corresponding "Riverside Biographical Series," in which have also recently appeared lives of Peter Cooper, by R. W. Raymond, and of William Penn, by George Hodges, both readable. Small as these volumes are (in both series), an index should, we think, be provided.

Who could not wish that such vulgar caricature as F. Opper's of the trinity, The Trusts, Hanna, and McKinley ('Willie and his Papa, and the Rest of the Family,' New York: Grosset & Dunlap), were purely libellous? And who, recognizing the humor of it all, the essential justice of the main contention, can help regretting that these clever cartoons were wasted on the readers of a yellow daily journal, whose editor has graciously assented to their republication in a volume? We cannot blame the artist for the medium when we consider how impervious the average Republican organ is to seemly and rational presentation of the same truths. Some of Mr. Opper's satire is in the interest of a spurious Americanism, and is levelled at the most honorable member of the President's "family."

A classified Mother Goose with index of first lines, and fresh illustrations, is 'A Book of Nursery Rhymes,' arranged by Mr. Charles Welsh (Boston: D. G. Heath & Co.). This first part ("personal to the child") presents Mother Play, and Mother Stories pertaining (a) to animals and their doings, and (b) to other children, and other people in relation to children, the whole "proceeding from the simple to the complex." The type is bold.

A magnificent folio in the Country Life Library imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, 'Gardens Old and New,' abounds in illustrations, many of them full-page halftones, of unusual beauty and softness. The introduction is chiefly given up to a discussion of the "historic continuity" of gardening and of the relation of the garden to the house. Throughout the entire book the question of the proportion, in the ideal garden, of the formal and the natural aspect is purposely kept in the foreground. The body of the volume deals with upwards of seventy English houses, of which the first is Clevedon Court, the home of the Eltons, and hospitable, in Sir Arthur Hallam Elton's time, to Tennyson, Hallam, and Thackeray. In its gardens long straight lines of terrace, vine-clad wall, and hedge offer restful occupation to the eye. In interesting contrast to its comparative simplicity is Levens Hall, of which a description follows, whose shrubs are clipped these last two hundred years in the image of Queen Elizabeth and her maids of honor; whose holly spreads eagle's wings, and whose noble yews are wrought into strange forms of peacocks and other fantastic shapes. We are told that no other garden in England possesses so much old and curious topiary work. The book, both by its text and by its illustrations, offers a really illuminating study of gardening in England. Here is portrayed the "pleasaunce" after the school of Le Nôtre, the simple and pleasing arrangement at Bulwick Hall, the modern topiary work as it is shown at Elvaston Castle, the garden architecture of beautiful Stoneleigh Abbey. Among the many remarkable pictures, "The Lower Pleasaunce" at Rous Lench Court, "Garden Art and Natural Character at St. Catherine's Court," "The Formal Garden" at Longford Castle, "A View over the Park" at Lilleshall, "A Vista of Sombre Yews and Bright Flowers" at Condover Hall, "The Classic Ascent beneath the Old Walnut Tree" at Ven House, may severally be noted for their interesting details. The chapters on Chatsworth, and on Guy's Cliff, Warwick, are superbly illustrated. The book is a valuable contribution to historical and descriptive garden lore.

The Bostonian Society's Proceedings for January last contains a paper on Boston ships, in which are some interesting facts. Ship-building began in 1631, the year following the settlement, and the industry increased so rapidly that in 1698 Lord Bellomont said, "I believe there are more good vessels belonging to Boston than to all Scotland and Ireland." The merchants of Boston at that time computed their trade at four times that of New York. In 1716 the first lighthouse in America was built, "the ninth then in existence in the world," and the Boston ship *Columbia* was the first to open up the northwest coast trade and the first to circumnavigate the globe under the American flag. In President Guild's annual address are some comparisons of the Boston of 1800 with the present city. A photogravure of the Carwitham view of Boston (which is the earliest picture showing the whole of the town), published in London about 1724, is here produced.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for March contains an account of a journey across Abyssinia to the Nile by Mr. O. T. Crosby, interesting chiefly for its intimations of the progress of western civilization in that country. The French railway from Jibuti had reached, a year ago, a distance of forty miles from the coast. There is a telephone from Harar, the principal town, to the capital, which the Emperor Menelek continually uses to transact his business. This capable and intelligent ruler is apparently sincere in his desire to put

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down the slave-trade. When Mr. Crosby passed through a part of the kingdom where there were still slave-markets, he saw no signs of it, but learned afterwards that the chiefs had given orders that no traffic should take place when a white man was present. Though the foreign commerce is in the hands of the French and English, he noted that in Harar "American cotton goods were the only cotton goods in evidence." Mr. W. J. McGee's notes on the Old Yuma trail characterize the ancestors of the Papago Indians, "who, driven into the deserts too far for foes to follow, were able to adjust themselves to one of the hardest environments in America, to engage in a ceaseless chase for water singularly like the chase for quarry in lower culture, and to produce a unique combination of crop-growing industries with migratory habits." Other articles are upon the sea fogs of San Francisco, with some remarkable photographs, and a description of the Philippine exhibit at the Buffalo Exposition, as well as some of the physical features of the islands.

A noteworthy contribution to the ethnography of a little-known people is to be found in Dr. Carl Sapper's paper, in *Petermann's Mittcilungen*, number two, on the Indians of southern Central America. In contrast to the relatively homogeneous Indians of Guatemala and Mexico, they are divided into numerous tribes with distinct languages and customs. Dr. Sapper attributes this separation to their lower civilization at the time of the Spanish conquest and their more determined resistance to its civilizing influences. On the accompanying map are shown twenty-four different languages. After some notes upon these languages, he shows their present condition—chiefly from his own observations, as the literature of the subject is very meagre—in their social organization, their marriage and funeral customs, religion, dwellings, food, clothing, weapons, and industries. His general conclusion is that there is a real fundamental distinction between them and the Maya-Aztec races to the north of them.

Although now a matter of history, the "coal crisis" in Germany of 1899-1900 may still be studied with advantage. M. Perquel has published a report on the subject prepared at the instance of the French Minister of Commerce, and has compiled an interesting sketch of the causes leading to the "crisis." The interests of France have naturally been kept in view, for the coal production of that country is very inelastic, and French industries become more dependent each year upon foreign supplies. If, therefore, Germany finds that all its own production of coal is required for domestic use, and a quantity must be imported from abroad, Germany not only cuts off the nearest source of French supply, but enters into English coal markets as a competitor of France, and one possessed of greater needs and higher ability to purchase. That the situation has changed since M. Perquel made his report does not lessen its value, and his account of the influence of the coal syndicates is of permanent economic worth. He concedes too high a value to the efforts of the syndicates to control production and prices, regarding them as purely beneficent in their effects—a conclusion discredited by the existing crisis in the iron and steel industries of Germany. In an excited and rising market the full pressure of monopoly was not felt; but it is now crushing in its weight and a cause of anxiety on the part of Government.

The essay by Charles Simon, the Rumanian Consul-General at Mannheim, on the "Fall in the Price of Wheat in France" possesses interest because it was called out by the pressure of American competition in agricultural products. France has given wheat greater protection than it enjoys in any other country of Europe, yet the price has remained much below the rate anticipated by the tariff-framers, and below what commercial considerations would favor. To correct this low price, M. Simon proposes to permit the importation of wheat in bond and the exportation of a like quantity from any port of France on the bonding certificate. This privilege will render unnecessary the transport of wheat over long distances in France from a department having an excess to one suffering from a deficit, and, in the opinion of the author, will permit an export not now profitable. Germany is taken as the example, but the remedy will not reach the real cause of complaint—the ability of the United States to grow wheat and land it in Europe at a cost permitting effective competition. The essay is published by Roustan, Paris.

A preliminary statement of the results of the Danish census of February 1, 1901, has recently been published by the state Statistical Bureau. From this it appears that the present population of Denmark, not including the dependencies and colonies, is 2,447,441. The census of 1890 showed a population of 2,172,380, so that the increase during the last eleven years has been over a quarter of a million, or about 12½ per cent. Notwithstanding the loss of Norway and Sleswick-Holstein, Denmark now contains as many inhabitants as it did at the beginning of the nineteenth century. The increase during the past eleven years has been very much greater than in any earlier corresponding period. This is due to the marked decrease in emigration, especially during the last half of the period, and to the equally marked decrease in the death-rate. The steady increase in the birth-rate should also be taken into account. In view of the efforts already begun by the Danish authorities to prevent the spread of consumption, the principal disease of the North, a still greater decrease in the death-rate may be looked for during the first ten years of the present century. In Denmark, as in the rest of northern Europe, the chief increase in population has been in the capital, which now contains 378,280, an increase of 17.7 per cent. The total increase of the towns has been 28 per cent.; that of the country districts only 4 per cent. One-fifth of the whole population is contained in Copenhagen, and another fifth in the remaining towns. The town showing the most remarkable increase is Esbjerg, the Chicago of Denmark, as it is called, with a growth from a little over 4,000 in 1890 to more than 12,000 in 1901. The largest provincial town is Aarhus, in Jutland, which has almost doubled its population in the last eleven years, and has shown a remarkable advance in other respects as well. Copenhagen celebrated the opening of the new century by more than doubling its territory through the addition of several suburbs to the north and west. This means an immense increase in population in the near future, which will be helped by another annexation next year.

Mr. W. I. Fletcher's Summer School of Library Economy will open for its eleventh year at Amherst, Mass., for a five-weeks' session on July 15. Those who attend will no longer have the advantage of Dr. Sauveur's Summer School of Languages, but elementary French will be taught by Professor Symington of Amherst College. An extra course also is special instruction in "library handwriting."

The familiar portrait of John Marshall has been finely copied from the canvas, in photogravure, by F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, to gratify the centennial interest in the great jurist. The plate measures about 12x15 inches, and is accompanied by an autograph and a motto—"Mark the perfect man."

—Professor Lydekker, one of the custodians of the British Museum, contributes to a recent number of *Nature* an interesting notice on the species of animals that have been exterminated by man during the century that has just closed. These are, perhaps, not so numerous as is generally supposed, and the forms are mainly such as are known more particularly to the systematist and collector. Among the fewer common types which collections and books of travel have made familiar, one of the most deplorable cases of extermination is furnished by the quagga, the beautiful zebra-like animal of South Africa, which in the first half of the century could still be met with in thousands covering the grassy veldts. At that time it formed the staple food of the Hottentot farmers of the Graaff Reinet district. The extermination of this animal, antedated seventy years by the destruction of the blaauwbok or blue antelope, appears to have been accomplished in 1873, and yet, singularly enough, most writers on natural history are seemingly under the impression that the quagga is still an abundant member of the African fauna. It is a remarkable fact that of this animal, which was frequently driven in harness at the Cape in the eighteenth century, and was afterwards the object of much unsuccessful effort at domestication, only a single stuffed specimen exists in all the British museums. Burchell's zebra, although still plentifully represented by sub-specific forms in various parts of the continent, has disappeared in its type-form, probably the most strikingly handsome of the African fauna. The other animals referred to by Professor Lydekker are mainly birds, such as the black emu (*Dromœus ater*) of South Australia, the water-hen (*Notornis albus*) of Lord Howe and Norfolk Islands, the diablotin or burrowing petrel of the Antilles, two species of the Nestor or kaka parrot of the Pacific Islands, a species of cormorant from Bering Sea, and the great auk, of which the last pair known to be living was destroyed in 1844. Professor Lydekker refers with satisfaction to the status of the Indian fauna, for, as he says, "it has not lost a single species of mammal, bird, or reptile, either during the nineteenth century or within the period of definite history." The animal whose early destruction is considered most likely, or which at least requires "most careful watching," is the Indian rhinoceros. The Asiatic lion has had its range very materially narrowed during recent years, but it is still extant.

—Another side to this interesting phase of zoölogical inquiry is presented in the

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depredations made upon man and his domesticated animals by the wild beasts of India. The annual catastrophes from this source have always been appalling, but those of the year 1899, for which the statistics have recently been published, seem unsurpassed, and they fully bear out Professor Lydekker's contention that the Indian fauna is in a good, perhaps even more than satisfactory, condition. The total deaths of human beings, as now registered, number for that year 27,500, for 24,600 of which the venomous snakes are held responsible. The increase over preceding years is largely attributed, singular though it may appear, to a lack of effort on the part of man to exterminate, as is proved by the concurrent decrease in the amount of bounty paid. A flooded condition of the jungles, which drove many of the animals, notably the tiger, to the neighborhood of village sites, is also held partially responsible. The deaths from tigers was 899, of which nearly one-half occurred in Bengal. The wolf is held accountable for 338 deaths, most of them occurring in the hill country or in the adjoining region. The casualties inflicted upon domesticated animals can hardly be counted, for the loss of cattle alone is placed at 99,000 head. Curious to relate, in some districts of the Central Provinces the tiger-bounty had been for a number of years withdrawn, the complaint of the husbandmen being that, with the destruction of the "king of the jungle," the deer and wild hogs developed in such numbers that they became an absolute menace to the crops. A European magistrate, on withdrawing the premium, felt that the balance which Nature had established in the struggle for existence should not be disturbed.

—In 1861-62 De Vogüé and Waddington explored a portion of Central Syria, finding "a large number of ruined cities and towns in a deserted mountain country to the east of the Orontes and in the Hauran." Since that time, the greater portion of that region, together with the important neighboring districts which De Vogüé was unable to reach, has remained unexplored, partly because of a general lack of interest in post-classical remains, partly because of the difficulty of visiting those regions, owing to the lack of water and the unwillingness of the Ottoman Government to grant permission to travel in parts so unsettled and unruly. In 1899, under the patronage of Messrs. V. Everit Macy, I. N. Stokes, and Clarence and B. T. Hyde of New York, a remarkably well-equipped expedition was sent out to re-explore the territory in question, and to visit as much of the unexplored neighborhood as possible. The leader of this expedition was Mr. Howard Crosby Butler, with whom were associated Mr. Robert Garrett for topography, Dr. W. K. Prentice for classical epigraphy, and Dr. Littmann for Semitic epigraphy; Mr. Butler himself taking architecture, sculpture, and matters purely archæological. During the second season the expedition had further an anthropologist, Mr. Henry M. Huxley, while for six weeks in the summer it was accompanied by Dr. George E. Post, the well-known medical missionary and botanist of Beirut. With the exception of two months in midwinter, the expedition was in the field from October of 1899 to June of 1900, and explored pretty thoroughly the district from Aleppo to the southern edge of the Hauran, and from the Orontes eastward to Palmyra. Mr. Butler furnishes a preliminary report of results in the last number of the *American Journal of Archæology*. Of inscriptions, he enumerates 386 Greek and 15 Latin, the major part hitherto unknown, together with a considerable number of Syriac, Palmyrene, Nabatæan (including one of the year 5-4 B. C.), and Safaitic, and a few Hebrew inscriptions. These were all, with one or two exceptions, post-Christian, dating from the beginning of the Christian era to the close of the sixth century. What may lie beneath, we do not know; but the surface is covered in a most remarkable manner with ancient ruins, probably the most interesting feature of which is "the remains of public and domestic architecture. There is nowhere so extensive illustration of the domestic architecture of the ancients, excepting, of course, in the Pompeian remains." But, while "the remains upon the Bay of Naples are not architectural in the truest sense, presenting as they do the most crude methods of construction, the houses of the deserted cities of northern Syria are wonderful monuments of architecture, interesting as studies of style and construction, as well as of plan and arrangement, and in their relation to the civilization of the time." The architecture was not homogeneous. In general, it may be said that it represents something different from the Græco-Roman architecture of the coast, and suggests the influence of another centre, which, we fancy, may ultimately be found in the practically unexplored regions of Mesapotamia, where Edessa exercised a predominant influence in the earliest Christian centuries. From the topographical standpoint, also, the results of this expedition are important. We are promised, as a result of this expedition, "maps of four separate districts and a large route map," besides "a detailed account of the architecture of the regions explored." This publication the explorers hope to give to the public "within two years."

—We do not feel quite sure as to whether or not Prof Edwin Erle Sparks's 'Expansion of the American People' (Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co.) is designed for use as a school text-book. If it is, we can hardly think it preëminently adapted to that purpose; but the volume itself is both entertaining and informing, and may be read with profit by many to whom the general course of our political development is pretty familiar. Leaving at one side political history, in the narrower sense, and ignoring almost altogether the details of the struggles by parties and party leaders and the discussions over articles of political faith, Professor Sparks has sought to show how the United States has grown, first of all in territory, but, along with that, in the diversity, range, and content of its material and social interests. Passing rapidly over the colonial period, the narrator goes on to the time when population began to spread across the mountains, and American institutions began to reproduce themselves in the nearer parts of the great West, thence in the South and Southwest, beyond the Mississippi in the Western plains, and finally on the Pacific. It is the story of the frontier, with its accompaniments of internal improvements, wagon roads and canals, railroads and steamboats, Indian wars, and territorial reaching out after "natural boundaries." The story, highly condensed and kept within obviously narrow lines, is worked out with an unusual wealth of unfamiliar incident, and with a directness and movement which go somewhat to offset the lack of other literary distinction. What makes Professor Sparks's book of more than common importance, however, is not so much its subject-matter as its point of view. It is distinctly Western in its atmosphere and treatment, its regard for what has been done rather than for what has been thought and said, and its acceptance of "empire" as the sure result of inevitably following the line of least resistance. As an all-round survey of American history, such an account is, we can but think, sadly awry, but perhaps the reaction against the conventional historical methods, especially if kept as well in hand as it is in Professor Sparks's volume, will turn out to be a good thing. A word should be said for the numerous pictures. While some of the cuts seem cheaply done, and the highly glazed paper detracts somewhat from the effectiveness of all of them, the abundance of well-chosen contemporary illustration here presented adds much to the value of the book.

—Octave Navarre, in his 'Essai sur la Rhétorique grecque avant Aristote,' makes an enthusiastic attempt, first, to give a detailed history of the earlier Greek Rhetoric, and, second, to reconstruct it on its technical side; aiming incidentally, all through his work, to encourage interest in a branch of study which he conceives to have fallen into undeserved neglect. On the historical side he has certainly drawn together a great deal of material not readily accessible to the average student, poorly equipped in the matter of time and sources, and for this he will doubtless receive the thanks that are his due. On the constructive side he makes up for the failure of previous technical works on rhetoric to survive, partly by an analysis of the earlier speeches which have come down to us, in whole or in fragments, and partly by pushing portions of the later rhetoric back into his period. The validity of his method here is not beyond question. When some isolated precept of the earlier period is found in the later rhetoric, bound up as an essential element in a complex whole, he assumes for the whole the demonstrable antiquity of the part. The result of such a process cannot be more than probable, though few will be found to deny the claim that a large portion of the formulated classical rhetoric which has survived must be carried back, with at least some degree of technical formulation, to an earlier date. On the other hand, he seems occasionally to lose sight of the fact that speeches were made before rules for speaking, and assumes too hastily the existence of a rule at an early period simply because he finds an extant speech in harmony with the rule as recorded by the later rhetoricians. We regret these lapses in the logic of M. Navarre's work, for if rhetoric is to be rehabilitated for any other purpose than to smooth the road for our modern sophists and demagogues, it must tread close by the path of a rigid logic.

—Dr. Karl Vossler of Heidelberg, whose various researches in Italian literature have received favorable notice in these columns, has contributed a volume on 'Italienische Litteraturgeschichte' to the excellent and

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inexpensive "Sammlung Göschen." The latest results of Romance scholarship are here brought within the narrow compass demanded by the exigencies of the series, and are thus made accessible to cultivated readers in general. After a brief introductory chapter on the structure of Italian verse and the evolution of the literary language, the author proceeds to trace the development of Italian literature from the earliest texts to the works of contemporary writers. The half-dozen pages devoted to Dante are a model of compression and critical treatment, and, although avowedly based on De Sanctis, admirably correct the errors of fact and perspective into which that brilliant critic's unhistorical method occasionally led him. The final chapter on the writers of our own day is the least satisfactory, and gives no adequate idea of the literary forces generated by the struggle for Italian unity which were weakened and deflected from their course when the object of the struggle was accomplished. On the whole, however, the volume may be implicitly trusted, and the reader can turn to it with the certainty of finding in the account of each author, whether a few lines or several pages are devoted to him, the latest and most authoritative results of criticism and research. With two such excellent manuals as those of Vossler and Flamini now accessible, the study of Italian literature should receive additional impetus in our universities. An oversight of the proof-reader is to be noted on page 72: "Pius II." should, of course, be "Paul II."

THE LATIN MONETARY UNION.

A History of the Latin Monetary Union: A Study of International Monetary Action. By Henry Parker Willis, Professor of Economics and Political Science in Washington and Lee University. The University of Chicago Press. Pp. 332.

Professor Willis has laid all students of monetary science under lasting obligations by this remarkable work. We hold it to be remarkable for its insight and grasp on economic principles, but still more for its laborious sifting of all the documentary and contemporaneous evidence available in the several countries forming the Latin Union. Much of this material will be new to French and Italian as well as to English and American readers. No such history of the Latin Monetary Union has hitherto been produced in any language, nor, it seems to us, will any future one be needed. The question may be asked whether the subject itself is worth so much labor as has here been expended on it. We can answer this question best by showing what the book contains. Any reader taking cognizance of the declared object expressed in the title-page will answer it in the affirmative.

The Latin Monetary Union was formed by a treaty dated December 23, 1865, between France, Belgium, Switzerland, and Italy. The drainage of silver from those countries following the new discoveries of gold in California and Australia had left them nearly destitute of small change. All of them, except Switzerland, had the double standard at the ratio of 15½. Switzerland had the single silver standard—with the franc as the unit—and no gold coinage at all; but the gold coins of France had established themselves in her commerce to such an extent that her Government in 1860 made them legal tender. In order to retain her silver small change, she had lowered the fineness of all coins smaller than five francs to 800-thousandths. This was in principle what the United States had done in 1853.

The first overtures for a monetary union to deal with the troubles consequent upon the exportation of silver came from Belgium. They were gladly accepted by the other countries, and the negotiators assembled November 20, 1865. Although the object of their meeting was merely to deal with the deficiency of small change, some of the members saw plainly that the question underlying all others was whether they should remain bimetallic or should adopt the single gold standard. The three smaller countries strongly advocated the gold standard with a silver subsidiary coinage, and the French delegates were of the same mind; but the French Minister of Finance, M. Fould, insisted on adherence to the double standard, and his authority was controlling.

The agreement provided that the countries should form a union "as regards the weight, fineness, diameter, and circulation (between the public treasuries) of their gold and silver coins"; that the gold coins and silver five-franc pieces of all the countries should be identical in everything, except their inscriptions, and should be received in the public treasuries of all; that the fineness of the smaller silver coins should be .835, and that they should be legal tender to the amount of 100 francs in one payment, and should be redeemed in gold, or in silver five-franc pieces, by the treasuries of the countries where they were struck, when presented by individuals or by the treasuries of the other countries. The gold coins and the silver five-franc pieces of each country were to be received without limit in the public treasuries of all, but there was no provision for redeeming them in anything else. Nor was there any clause requiring any of the parties to coin either metal. Nor was there a word on the subject of legal tender. A provision was added, enabling other states to join this monetary union at their own volition, by adopting the system and accepting its obligations. The treaty was to continue in force fifteen years, and for periods of fifteen years each thereafter, unless denounced one year before the expiration of any such period. The market ratio of gold and silver at the time was slightly under the legal ratio of 1 to 15½.

Professor Willis shows us why the French Government overruled the plenipotentiaries in reference to the adoption of the gold standard. The Emperor Napoleon III. had a conceit of extending the prestige of France by securing the adoption of her monetary system among the nations. He was largely under the influence of the Bank of France and of the *haute finance*, upon whom he must rely in the event of a war with Prussia, which was already in contemplation, and he was, therefore, disposed to be governed by them in matters of detail. They had reaped large profits from exchange operations in gold and silver on each oscillation of the market ratio above or below the legal ratio. If the single gold standard were adopted, this source of profit would be cut off. So the plenipotentiaries were not allowed to have their way.

At the outset, nothing seemed simpler than a monetary union composed of adjacent states whose coinage systems were already similar, yet it went wrong almost immediately. Italy suspended specie payments within six months. Her silver money, including her subsidiary coins, flowed into the territory of the other countries, and the question whether she would be able to redeem the latter rose in men's minds. The question of redeeming her five-franc pieces had not yet become important. Greece was the only other country that elected to join the scheme. This she did in 1868, but her finances were in such a rickety state that she brought weakness rather than strength to the union. The next event of importance was the international monetary conference of 1867, held during the Paris Exposition of that year. Nineteen countries, including the United States, were represented in it. The declared object of this conference was to secure uniformity of coinage among civilized nations. The real object was to secure the adhesion of other countries to the Latin union. This end might have been gained but for its bimetallic basis. The delegates voted unanimously for the monetary system of the Latin Union, provided they were not committed to bimetallism. They then voted unanimously, with the exception of Holland, for the single gold standard. French officialism and the *haute finance* were surprised and mortified that the representatives of the entire Latin Union, including France herself, had broken their leading-strings and voted against bimetallism. Naturally they had no further use for the conference. Professor Willis points out incidentally the "complete misstatement" of the action of the conference of 1867 made by the United States Monetary Commission of 1876, which had the effrontery to say: "The demonetization of silver formed no part of the policy proposed"—that being the very thing which was proposed.

The action of the conference was not lost upon public opinion in France. An agitation sprang up for the adoption of the gold standard, and became so persistent that the Government was compelled to take notice of it. Not a year passed thereafter without a commission to examine the subject. The fact is very clearly brought out by Professor Willis that, despite the opposition of the great bankers, France was moving irresistibly toward the gold standard, and would have adopted it before Germany did but for the war of 1870. Important testimony on this point is found in the *Enquête* of 1868, in which the opinions of the Receivers-General and the Chambers of Commerce of the entire nation were called for. Of the responses given, 113 were in favor of the gold standard and only 22 for bimetallism. The Minister of Finance and the money-changers managed to stave off a settlement by referring the question to the Conseil Supérieur de l'Agriculture, du Commerce et de l'Industrie, in December, 1869. This body made a more thorough investigation than any of its predecessors, and, by a vote of 14 against 5, decided in favor of the gold standard; but the report was not finished till late in 1870, when the disturbed state of public affairs prevented any action upon it. The report was not published until 1872. Meanwhile it was generally believed that the war indemnity imposed by Germany had disabled France from adopting

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the gold standard. This was an erroneous supposition, as events subsequently proved. All that needed to be done was to stop coining silver, and this remedy could have been applied as easily at one time as at another; but this fact was not self-evident. It could be learned only by experiment.

The year 1873 was an eventful one. The price of silver fell below 60d. per ounce. The ratio to gold had been above 15½ for five years, and was slowly rising. Silver was flowing into the countries of the Latin Union and gold flowing out. The white metal was piling up at the mints of Paris and of Brussels, much beyond their capacity to coin it. The old five-franc pieces were reappearing in payments with disagreeable frequency. The French authorities sought to check the movement in September, 1873, by a secret mint regulation, limiting the coinage of silver to 250,000 francs per day. Two months later the limit was lowered to 150,000 francs, and then the secret came out. Of course it did not have a quieting effect on the public mind. The Belgian Minister of Finance was much distressed by the commercial classes, who insisted that, unless something were done to check the inrush of silver, there would not be a gold coin left in the kingdom. After unnecessary and almost fatal delay, he proposed a bill to the legislative body authorizing the Government to limit or suspend the coinage of silver five-franc pieces till January 1, 1875. The bill was promptly passed, and the suspension ordered.

In November, 1873, Switzerland requested that a new convention of the Latin Monetary Union be called, and this was agreed to by France, notwithstanding the opposition of the money-changers, who were again making large profits. The convention assembled at Paris, January 8, 1874. All the countries found themselves more or less in a trap. None of them could take the steps which self-interest required. Belgium and Switzerland wanted complete stoppage of silver coinage. Italy was still under suspension of specie payments, but she had promised to allow the National Bank to coin sixty million francs of silver as a reserve fund, for which the bullion had already been provided. France did not know exactly what she wanted, but she knew that she held an immense stock of Italian and Belgian silver, whose future required careful nursing. Everything pointed toward compromise. The result was an agreement to restrict the coinage of silver five-franc pieces for the year 1874 to 120 million francs for all the countries, the proportions for each being defined. It was provided that the sum allotted to the National Bank of Italy should be kept under lock and key until after the next meeting of the Union in January, 1875. The right of admission to the Union previously extended to other countries was withdrawn unless by the consent of the existing members. Silver was thus practically demonetized by the Latin Union, although the restriction placed upon its coinage was called temporary. The restriction was renewed with some variations for each year until 1876, when the French Chambers, at the instance of M. Léon Say, the Minister of Finance, passed a bill authorizing the Government to limit or suspend the coinage of silver five-franc pieces by decree. The bill was passed on the 5th of August, and the decree of suspension was promulgated on the following day.

The international monetary conference of 1878, called at the instance of the United States, had no effect upon the course of events, but the conference of the Latin Union itself in that year was important. The Union would have been dissolved but for the fact that France was carrying a heavy load of Belgian and Italian silver which there was no present means of getting rid of. Italy was now taking steps to resume specie payments, and the conference addressed itself to the task of returning her subsidiary silver and getting pay for it according to the terms of the original agreement. If anybody thinks that a monetary union of four or five different countries on a bimetallic basis is a simple thing, and easily managed, let him read the debates and proceedings of this conference, and the various treaties, protocols, declarations, and additional acts evolved by it, all relating to this one subject of the Italian subsidiary coins. Incidentally the fact is here disclosed that one and a half million francs of the silver coins of the Papal States had rushed into France pell-mell with those of Italy proper, but without any redeemer, express or implied. This, however, was only a minor mischance.

The question of redeeming the silver five-franc pieces was mooted in the conference of 1878, where it came near to producing an explosion. It was the chief bone of contention in the next conference, that of 1884. France, which held the bulk of them, had reached the determination that each country should redeem in gold at par all of its silver five-franc pieces, and had even arranged the time and manner of redemption before the conference assembled. Italy, although she had showed fight when this plan was advanced in 1878, was now ready to support it. She had resumed specie payments and was enthusiastic for the gold standard. Belgium refused flatly to sanction the proposal, and withdrew from the conference when she was outvoted. The other countries went on calmly without her, and adopted a new treaty, that of 1885. It was provided that the coinage of silver five-franc pieces should be suspended and not resumed without unanimous consent; that the legal-tender quality should be refused to the five-franc pieces of any state not a member of the Union, and that any state renouncing the Union should be held to receive back its silver five-franc pieces circulating in the other countries and pay their nominal value on demand. As Belgium had not formally renounced the Union, although her delegates had withdrawn from the conference, these clauses applied to her.

Belgium contended that she had derived no advantage from the coinage of five-franc pieces at her mint for private persons, and therefore could not be justly called upon to redeem them. The others reminded her that she was not under any obligation to coin for private persons, and that if she had elected to do so, and a loss resulted from such coinage, such loss ought not to fall upon the other parties to the Union. The others had means of coercing her, or at all events, of discrediting her in the eyes of the world, by depositing her five-franc pieces in the National Bank of Belgium and selling the bills of exchange drawn against them in the money markets of Europe. The Bank might pay the bills in silver exclusively, but she would ruin her credit. Nobody would know what a draft on the Bank of Belgium was worth at any time. Moreover, all the banks and treasuries of the other members of the Union would refuse to receive Belgian five-franc pieces, which would thereupon rush home precipitately. Shortly after this treaty was concluded, Belgium dispatched M. Pirmez as her plenipotentiary to Paris to treat with the French Ministry instead of the representatives of the Union. In the end, she assumed responsibility for her silver five-franc pieces, but was accorded very lenient terms. Actual redemption was indefinitely postponed, but the power now resides with France to call upon Belgium to redeem 250 millions, Italy 270 millions, and Greece 14 millions of silver francs. None of them can do so; therefore they cannot withdraw from the Union even if they should desire to.

The later conferences of 1893 and 1897 teach nothing except the impossibility of rehabilitating silver and the inconvenience of being obliged to consult four Governments besides your own whenever you want to issue a few million francs of subsidiary coin. Any unprejudiced reader of this history will have reached the same conclusion as Professor Willis, even before he reads it at the end of his book, viz.:

"The Latin Union, as an experiment in international monetary action, has proved a failure. Its history serves merely to throw some light upon the difficulties which are likely to be encountered in any international attempt to regulate monetary systems in common. From whatever point of view the Latin Union is studied, it will be seen that it has resulted only in loss to the countries involved."

The work is dedicated to William L. Wilson, the late President of Washington and Lee University.

MORE FICTION.

The Engrafted Rose. By Emma Brooke. Herbert S. Stone & Co.

Sister's Vocation, and Other Girls' Stories. By Josephine Dodge Daskam. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Wellesley Stories. By Grace Louise Cook. Richard G. Badger & Co.

The Soul of the Street. By Norman Duncan. McClure, Phillips & Co.

The Inn of the Silver Moon. By Herman Knickerbocker Viele. Herbert S. Stone & Co.

The Archbishop and the Lady. By Mrs. Schuyler Crowninshield. McClure, Phillips & Co.

To readers of 'A Superfluous Woman,' 'The Engrafted Rose,' by the same writer, will come as an agreeable evidence of growth in grace. That was in the last degree disagreeable, with a disagreeableness from which its latest successor is happily quite free. There is, to be sure, an unpleasant family with an ancestral obligation to be odious, but it is drawn with reserves, and affords no more shadow than is inevitable in a story dealing largely with questions of heredity. There is, moreover, a real story; it has construction, if not greatly hampered with plot, and it proceeds on interesting and original lines. The ancestral tendencies haunt the story with ghostly subtlety. The reader is conscious at one or two points of a Hawthornish thrill and chill. Yet there is nothing beyond the

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possible in the story, and there are some English-village characterizations and some peasant dialect work that were done by a shrewd and humorous pen. About the style there hangs too often a conscientious avoidance of the simple which to the plain man is vexing. We wish Miss Brooke would read and take to heart what Chief Justice Marshall wrote to his grandson: "The man who by seeking embellishment hazards confusion, is greatly mistaken in what constitutes good writing." The embellishment in her case is a bumptious tendency on the part of pompous words to rush to the front. After some of her sentences one is obliged to cough to regain breath. Sometimes she feels this and translates herself. "It lay within the idiosyncrasy of temperament that the medium he chose was not strings but keys. Hawmonde was a fine pianist." If she would throw away the worser half of her manner, we should live the happier with the purer half. What, for instance, could be prettier than the phrase concerning the young man when the dark-eyed heroine, with voice that "matched her eyes," looks at him and speaks to him, and it is said that he felt "as though a bunch of pansies had been lightly thrown against his breast"?

Miss Daskam's 'Stories for Girls' are in the main refreshingly free from the trait which renders many girls' stories painful reading—the making of each young heroine a reformer of all the adults about her. Such literature abounds, and should be classed as reading for all except young people. The trail of this educative serpent is to be seen in the opening story of the present collection, but on the whole the tone taken is wholesome and fitting, free from mawkishness, and with the unmistakable college-girl touch which knits them closely to the present-day reader. There is a generous sprinkling of millinery, but perhaps this is a necessary sugar-powdering to the tonic moral, and so "no more than reason" for a young girl's behoof. The gem of the book is the story of a girl's disillusionizing glimpse into Bohemia. This is cleverly done and is well written. The author's style, indeed, throughout is commendably simple, clear, and good.

Miss Cook's Wellesley stories carry one bodily and in a neat, trim style into college life, its atmosphere, occupations, athletics, elections, rivalries, tea-drinkings, class-ceremonials, now and then its studies. This effective transportation of the reader being supposedly the author's aim, she may be congratulated on her success. The studies are nothing if not realistic, and leave the reader instructed, if sometimes æsthetically a-cold. The picture does not altogether put one in love with college influences. If we are to understand that college life sharpens the sense of honor, we must ask, Is a girl justified in reading another girl's letter even when she knows it is a lying one? If Professor Lamont really visited the scene of the junior mysteries, was it honorable to let Miss Brook figure as the culprit? If Professor Lawrence did not know of the affair of literary plagiarism, was it not so much the worse for Professor Lawrence? The self-justifying plagiarist's portrait meantime is very clever, as is that other one of the irresponsible Clorinda, with her shifty logic, But somehow the indeterminate type of character and of retribution, however identified with modern fiction, jars in college literature. One would like to see the mean and dishonest girls all found out and overtaken by poetic justice in the good, old-fashioned way. The one love story is quite the poorest of the collection. The proof-reading, let us hope, was not done under college auspices, being atrocious.

The stories from New York's Syrian quarter, as might have been expected, have arrived, and very excellent ones they are. Lower Washington Street and Battery Park, with the sea glimmering and the elevated road roaring, form the background to what the subtitle of 'The Soul of the Street' proclaims as "correlated stories." What seem at first like affectations of speech are looked back upon as Orientalisms when one has fairly entered upon the scene and learned to value the dreamy, child-loving, country-serving, visionary Khalil Khayat, the grimy old editor and the chief link in the "correlation." The writer's evident intimacy with his subject conveys itself to the reader, who, growing acquainted with a new circle of fellow-citizens, at the last, seems to be parting with friends. We see Syrians dealing with one another, with Irish hoodlums, and with city officials; we see them wise, greedy, kindly, suspicious, dirty, poetic, patriotic, servile; we feel that the likenesses are speaking; we love the lovable traits of these Christian exiles, even some of the exiles themselves; and we are glad they live near the Battery. In good report and evil, the record is vivid, and the book a noteworthy document upon a little-known phase of our city history.

'The Inn of the Silver Moon' is as merry a litle extravaganza as a bored reader could wish. It relates the adventures of two young French persons, who have surreptitiously imbibed the "American idea" through American romances. The youth declares that, "beneath the exterior of a provincial *rentier* may lurk the spirit of Uncas, the Last of the Mohicans." The young girl's confession is that, after reading Howells, smuggled into her convent, "the insidious poison of confidence in mankind has entered my blood, and that I shall never know again the sweet suspicion and mistrust of my earlier years." Chance throwing these emancipated spirits together into a tangle of predicament, it requires the cleverness of both to bring them to a safe harbor, which is accomplished in a delightfully comic fashion. One agreeable innovation, among many, upon the usual scheme of such stories is the refreshing recklessness with which embarrassments are sloughed, never to reappear. We are spared that tiresome, "And now to return to the dragon," which has cast a gloom over many funny sketches.

'The Archbishop and the Lady,' through the first half of its 460 pages, seems on the point of being one of the best novels of the winter. The old French Abbey, the ruins and haunted rooms, the vine-clad terraces and leafy arbors, make a charming setting for a house party of eccentrics of all nations. Curiosity is whetted, interest is roused and long maintained. Mysteries are agreeably handled and characters drawn in high relief, if not always with persuasion. The *descensus Averni* of a novel is too often far from being as facile as the ascent. This one in particular flags sadly after once the piling on of troubles has been accomplished, and when we are looking for release. At least half of the later interviews in Paris of the hero with his various friends and opponents could have been omitted as adding to the story nothing but feebleness. At the Abbey all went well, but, reversing the proverb, this good story dies when it goes to Paris. The characters go flopping about in their tribulations, as minutely as aimlessly. The Irishman is one of the best-drawn persons in the drama. The American hero is all-conquering, as usual, but somewhat colorless. The heroine is rather loosely put together. The most elaborate and successful of the portraits is that of the much-married Madame. The *enfant terrible* is wholly preposterous, but a useful agent in disclosing secrets necessary to be known. A writer who criticises the English as given to lapses in grammar should take care not to say "hoped that it might be her whom he sought." The book is thickly sown with clever sayings, the outcome of clever observation of men and manners; and for all its faults is interesting reading. It would be an ideal book for the over-Sunday guest. He could not finish it within the limits of his visit; he would remember the beginning of it as uncommon, and he would go all his days wondering how it came out.

RECENT BOOKS ON INDIA.

While India, the wretched, is miserably prone before the devils of famine and plague, Indologists, though unable to aid her in her stupid helplessness, are doing the best they can for her in other ways. And it is indeed a pleasure to turn from the dreary annals of disease and death to books that revive the memory of accomplished greatness, and recall the age when India was herself. The year past has brought out several publications of more than usual interest for the outer circle of those interested in Oriental matters.

Of these, two in particular represent less the year than the half-century and generation just completed. It was nearly fifty years ago that the Pāli scholar Fausböll published his modest and learned edition of the best-known collection of Buddhist verses, the famous 'Dhammapada.' At that time its place in the ancient literature was unknown; it was generally considered to be a work by itself, and its true nature was suggested only as a doubtful theory among other questionable hypotheses in regard to its origin. Now we know that it is merely a collection of "elegant extracts," torn from their connection and grouped together, the flower of Buddhist teaching in the form of popular verse; some of it common to Brahman and Buddhist alike. The work has often been translated, and "All that we have is the result of what we have thought," "Not birth and learning but good behavior make the true Buddhist," are phrases familiar even to those unlearned in the native texts. With the imprint (Luzac & Co.) 1900 instead of MDCCCLV, this little volume has been reëdited by the veteran scholar who first gave us the text, and in a few words of preface he has shown at a glance how great is the advance of Buddhistic scholarship since the book first appeared. Nearly half the stanzas have now been assigned to their proper place in other Pāli books. One feature deserving of especial commendation is the restoration of the metrical form in verses which, in the old edition, jarred painfully upon the ear. It will be a great good when other Hindu metrical works shall at last be rescued from the

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hands of the grammatical pedant and published in their original form of verse. It is pleasant to add that this little volume of Dr. Fausböll's is dedicated to an American scholar, "Professor Dr. Lanman of the Harvard University," a fitting recognition of Professor Lanman's long devotion to the cause of Pāli scholarship.

With what sounds like a long sigh of relief, the editor of a very different work breathes out in a learned Introduction his satisfaction at living to complete the labor of twenty years. The last volume of the "Sacred Books of the East" closes the extended translation of the huge 'Çatapatha Brāhmana,' by Dr. Eggeling—in many regards the most important of ancient Hindu books on the ritual of sacrifice. The subject is remote, the style is irksome; but the content of many chapters is of far more general interest than is indicated by the title or general subject-matter. For it is characteristic of Hindu works on the ritual to interpolate tales and sociological data of prime importance. The learned editor has treated some of these in his Introduction—sub-subjects, so to speak, of the main work, but to us more germane to knowledge than the rules of the ritual. Particularly attractive are the passages which deal with human sacrifice and those mysterious singers who "celebrated the King" in impromptu verse, the earliest reference to verses of a strictly epic character. What a hold such studies have upon the true scholar is well illustrated by the closing words of the Introduction, where the editor, after his "and now my task is done," yet concludes brightly: "If a second edition could ever have been required, . . . it would have found me ready once more to work my way through the bewildering maze."

As a sort of appendix to the question of epic origins involved in the text of the last-mentioned book comes Rektor Pischel's little monograph, entitled 'Die Heimat des Puppenspiels,' concerning which it may be said that no one "can afford to be without it" who is interested in the origin of dramatic representation. It is a pamphlet not for Sanskritists, but for the world, the kind of "popular" writing to which German scholars occasionally condescend, especially when, on being elected to the high office of Rektor, they have to say something intelligible in public ("Hallesche Rektorreden," Max Niemeyer). The same author's massive volume, 'Grammatik der Prakrit-Sprachen,' which has just appeared, deserves a review by itself. It is the most complete and important contribution to Indic phonology that has yet been written.

The Pāli Text Society has taken time by the forelock and published a little Buddhistic work in 1902 (*sic*)! It is called the 'Netti-Pakarana,' and may turn out to be a valuable addition to the already large Buddhistic library, but its date is so doubtful that at present it is scarcely worth while discussing its contents. Lateness, however, is not always a bar to worth, as may be seen in the very attractive little volume by Foucher, 'Étude sur l'Iconographie Bouddhique' (Paris: Ernest Leroux), which, though it deals with documents as recent as the eighth century, contains much of historical value, not only in occasional notes on modern conditions, but also in the testimony given by the documents to tradition undoubtedly older. Of the first there is an example in the note on page 4, which confirms the opinion first advanced four years ago, that Bengal was a seat of Buddhistic culture long after the twelfth century, at which time it has always been supposed that the Hindus were wholly Brahmanistic. Another passage, on page 52, shows that *caitya* is not necessarily a tope; the wide bearing of which remark in Buddhistic history will perhaps not be apparent to all without the supplementary statement that Buddhism has often been suspected to exist on the evidence of this very word *caitya*, which, in distinction from the reliquary mound called a tope, is only a general commemorative monument, and may be of any form. Of the second sort of information to be gleaned from this careful study, that pertaining to the classification of divinities (including Buddha!) is most valuable, since it tends to elucidate some vexed questions in regard to sects of the church. Most curious is it to find one small miniature combining in one figure the characteristics of the Buddha and the Bodhisattva—that is, the ideals of two opposed sects! Still more important for the history of Buddhism is it to find Shiva and Buddha merged into one.

Turning from these foreign studies of Danish, English, German, and French scholars, there remains a little book of American authorship, which, without the same evidence of being the creation of a specialist, is nevertheless a decided contribution to the literature of Buddhism. Its long title may be condensed into the form 'The Dhamma and the Gospel' (Boston: Marlier & Co.), and its author is Dr. C. F. Aiken of the Catholic University of America. Although stamped with *nihil obstat* and *imprimatur*, it is not of that class of books which give to the reader only what the writer thinks best for him to know; but it is a very fair and dispassionate review of the question whether Buddhism gave rise to Christianity. That the author is not a Sanskrit scholar may be inferred from the inclusion of Manu among Sūtra-writers (p. 10); but this is a little slip, and the chief problem calls in reality for an historical mind rather than for knowledge of Sanskrit. Readers of the *Nation* will have noticed a few weeks ago a paragraph on a shallow book of Arthur Lillie's, which, one of a number of equally worthless volumes by the same writer, derives Christianity, the cult of the Norsemen, and Mexican superstitions alike from Buddhism. It is against the empty sciolism of this class of books that Dr. Aiken's polemic is written, and, though many of the points raised in the discussion remain moot, the general thesis is maintained in a worthy manner. The author neither blinks the problem nor fails to treat his numerous antagonists with respect, in some cases with more respect than they deserve. His contention that Christianity has made more impression on Buddhism than the latter ever made on Christianity is supported by the best evidence obtainable. The "marvellous parallels," explicable to writers of Lillie's stamp only on the assumption that Christianity borrowed from Buddhism, resolve themselves into a poor collection of resemblances some of which amount to naught but accident, while in others the greater probability is that Buddhism in its later stage (for many of the "parallels" are found only in the post-Christian epoch) was affected by the teaching of Christian missionaries who entered India in the first century. 'What India Owes to Christianity' is a book still to be written. For the present, Dr. Aiken's little volume is a healthy antidote to the numerous unscholarly diatribes written of late to prove that Christianity owes everything to Buddhism.

Up from Slavery: An Autobiography. By Booker T. Washington. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1901.

This book is to be sharply distinguished from another of similar character, 'The Life and Work of Booker T. Washington,' a subscription book of the cheapest character which has recently been put upon the market as if it were a new book. It contains a good deal of the matter presented in 'Up from Slavery,' interspersed with illustrations so ill-made and with such offensive titles that they cannot have been approved by Mr. Washington and must give him serious annoyance. 'Up from Slavery' has been published serially in the *Outlook*, where it has been widely read and with much admiration, but it is fully entitled to republication in the attractive volume which now comes to hand, lacking the excellent illustrations which were a notable feature of the *Outlook* serial. Those who would possess themselves fully of Mr. Washington's mind and purpose should supplement 'Up from Slavery' with his 'Future of the American Negro,' published a year ago.

The new book has an accidental timeliness for which we cannot be too glad, coming as it does so close upon the heels of Mr. Thomas's 'American Negro,' recently reviewed in these columns. It is the best kind of answer to that railing accusation, and we hope that Mr. Washington will attempt no other. He has one reference to it, or some earlier deliverance of its author, where he says (p. 249):

> "I have seen the statement made lately, by one who claims to know what he is talking about, that, taking the whole negro race into account, ninety per cent. of the negro women are not virtuous. There never was a baser calumny uttered concerning a race, or a statement made that was less capable of being proved by actual facts."

The difference between Mr. Thomas's construction and that of Mr. Washington is not, however, so great as it appears to the more casual reader. For it must be remembered that the negro is for Mr. Thomas, not a body of colored people, but, as certain theologians say of heaven, "a state of mind." His only true negroes are foolish negroes and bad negroes. He adopts a standard which excludes himself and presumably Mr. Washington, seeing that he does not once mention him nor the work which he and his eighty assistants are doing at Tuskegee. Mr. Washington's method is diametrically the opposite of this. He imputes his own work and that of all the better negroes to the race for righteousness. That is to say, in striking the average he does not exclude the better elements. In no other respect is his book more impressive and affecting than in that of his complete identification of himself with his people. His achievements are their possibilities. He delights frankly in the honors paid to him at Atlanta, at Harvard, in Europe, and elsewhere, but always because he is a negro and a representative of the millions who have just escaped from slavery into "a bewildering freedom."

Mr. Washington must have had natural

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gifts of expression which have been enhanced by careful attention to the principles of good writing. His style is simple and direct, without any of that rhetorical effusion which Mr. Thomas holds to be a negro trait, and grossly illustrates in his own person. His sense of humor is keen, and he has some amusing stories, but they are never lugged in by the ears; they are always pertinent and happy illustrations of particular phases of his thought.

In some degree the book derives its interest from Mr. Washington's low and miserable beginnings contrasting with the successes of his later life. Benjamin Franklin's first arrival in Philadelphia has a worthy pendant in Booker T. Washington's first arrival in Richmond, where he slept *under* a sidewalk by night, while working by day to earn money to carry him to his destination at the Hampton Institute. It was neither strange nor dishonorable that his mind reverted to those days when he was getting a degree from Harvard or taking tea with Queen Victoria. But his getting on was but the smaller part of his experience—he was bound to do that, he was so ambitious, so thrifty and industrious. Very early in life, however, he developed an ambition to be the helper of his people. Inducements were offered him to seek political preferment, the rewards of which were easily within his grasp, but these he put aside, and at length, in 1881, at the instance of Gen. Armstrong, he went to Tuskegee to begin the work which is so honorably associated with his name.

On his way to this beginning his upward course was marked by many incidents of the *olim meminisse juvabit* kind. In his worst straits at Hampton, while working in a restaurant at Fortress Monroe, he found a new, crisp $10 bill. It would have rescued him from the horrible pit and the miry clay, but his employer decided that the money belonged to himself because it was found on his premises. Trying to be a waiter in New Haven, he failed so egregiously that he was driven off the field by the maledictions of the gentlemen (?) who could not endure his blundering; but he soon made himself efficient. A more significant difficulty was that attending his charge of an Indian student from Hampton to Washington. The Indian had the freedom of the cars and the hotels from which young Washington was excluded. On the other hand, at this early time and later, he had experiences that would have been "wonderful providences" to one more prone to theological interpretations.

The vicissitudes and achievements of the Tuskegee School are exhibited in a series of pictures and contrasts that must sometimes make the reader's heart beat fast and sometimes dim his eyes. Wonderfully pathetic are the reminiscences of students frost-bitten in their beds; of the old colored teachers flocking in and taking a lower rank than their former pupils; of the disinclination to manual labor which was gradually overcome; of the generous coöperation of the white people of Tuskegee with Mr. Washington and his coworkers. The first animal owned by the school was an old blind horse; now it has over 200 horses, mules, etc., besides 700 pigs, for which creatures Mr. Washington confesses a peculiar admiration. At first there was a stable and a hen-house for housing the pupils; now there are forty buildings, built almost entirely by the students. At first Mr. Washington was the only teacher; now he has a teaching and directing force of eighty men and women. At first there was no money; now the school property is worth $300,000, and there is $250,000 in endowment funds. Mr. Washington's chapter about getting money for the school is one of the most interesting in his book. Many have wondered how he could be away from Tuskegee so much without prejudice to his hold upon the work. We are informed that every day of his absence he receives an account of the work down to the last details—what students are excused from work and why; the bill of fare, and whether certain meats are baked or boiled.

There is scant attention to race problems, but it is not as if Mr. Washington had not written elsewhere of negro lynching and disfranchisement. Here it is only necessary for him to call attention to those utterances which were sufficiently distinct, and absolutely final in their disproof of any willingness on his part to sell the political and social birthrights of his people for any mess of industrial pottage, however wholesome this may be. Of striking episodes there is none superior to that of the Atlanta Exposition speech. In advance of its delivery he was very nervous, but even more so was his friend Mr. William H. Baldwin, jr., now better known than then, who walked about outside the buildings in a spasm of anxiety until the ordeal was over and a splendid triumph scored. Those who propose skipping the chapter on Mr. Washington's trip to Europe—the chapter on this subject can be so safely skipped in most biographies—would do well to change their minds. What is most interesting about it is the main reason why he feared to go. It was that he might seem "stuck up," trying to "show off," and so give countenance to the idea that the negro cannot bear prosperity without being unduly exalted. What is certain is that Mr. Washington has had successes that would turn the head of many a white man, but his own is right side up. It is kept so by the balance of a heart devoted to the elevation of his race.

The Art of Translating. With special reference to Cauer's 'Die Kunst des Uebersetzens.' By Herbert Cushing Tolman, Ph.D. Boston: B. H. Sanborn & Co. 1901.

By compilation from Cauer and others, with constant suggestions and illustrations of his own, Professor Tolman has made up a little volume of undoubted value to the teacher and translator of foreign languages, ancient or modern. It cannot be said, however, that the great difficulties heretofore encountered by the translator have now been cleared away. Perhaps it may be considered a sufficient achievement for a single effort if any considerable number of translators are brought to realize more vividly that the difficulties exist.

The volume does not shrink from the constructive side of the problem, however, and it is on this side that some of the positions taken require particular notice. We are told, as a point of departure, that "translation is arousing in the English reader or hearer the identical emotions and sentiments that were aroused in him who read or heard the sentence as his native tongue." The formula sounds well, but it has many and insurmountable limitations. Of course, he gets most enjoyment out of Homer or Virgil, Herodotus, or Livy who can most thoroughly assume their habit of mind and put himself in imagination in their environment; but, allowing for all the elements that are permanent in human nature and experience—and they are more, and more important, than we often think—the lapse of centuries yet leaves a gap which the most sympathetic and thorough scholarship can never close.

In the application of this idea the author insists that the translator must be true to the imperfections as well as the virtues of his original, as any other course will sacrifice the peculiarities of style displayed in the original. As an illustration, Frazer is criticised for transforming the "broken and slovenly" Greek of Pausanias into "stately" English. Without justifying a *stately* rendering of Pausanias, one may ask why there is any call for an English rendering of his work at all. In nearly every instance would not the English reader be after the substance, and not the form, of the original? Why, then, should he be annoyed by finding that substance buried in a mass of broken and slovenly English simply because broken and slovenly Greek was a peculiarity of the original? It is a wonder that his very choice of an illustration did not lead the author to recognize an important limitation to his formula in the purpose for which a translation is or ought to be made. Who does not feel compelled, for reasons apart from style, to read many books in which peculiarities of style are a constant stumbling-block, producing emotions of anger and disgust? Shall the translator of such books (sometimes epoch-making volumes in history, philosophy, theology, or natural science) strive faithfully to reproduce these emotions? But even in works admired for their literary value, the attempt to reproduce stylistic blemishes and idiosyncrasies must often end in ignominious failure. Who will give us an endurable translation of the later works of Tacitus reproducing in any close parallelism his syntactical peculiarities? The man who attempts it will almost surely give the false impression that the main feature in the great historian is his way of putting things, not the fusion of a great subject under the heat of a great and earnest mind. If ever the adequate translation of Tacitus comes, it will surely come from some statesman on whose mind the thought of the original will take such a hold that he will read with but scant consciousness of asyndetons enumerative and adverse, *comparationes compendiariæ*, alliterative antitheses, syntactical parallelisms, and inconcinnities, *et id omne genus*, so dear to the student of Tacitean style, and so small a part of the real Tacitus. When a great genius puts pen to paper with a purpose not primarily artistic, the result may be a great work of literature; but in such a case "the style will be the man" in a sense which lies far beneath the surface currents of grammar and rhetoric.

"When Sallust, Livy, or Tacitus, under influence of vivid description, ignores tense and person, and uses the so-called historical infinitive, the translator should endeavor to convey into English the excitement and confusion of the original." But he should be very careful not to assume that the historical infinitive in itself involves excitement and confusion in the original. The 'Agricola' lies before us, and at the bottom of the

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third page (Gudeman's edition) we find the following words: "Sed noscere provinciam, nosci exercitui, discere a peritis, sequi optimos, nihil adpetere in iactationem, nihil ob formidinem recusare, simulque et anxius et intentus agere." Seven historical infinitives within twenty-four words, and yet who will make out a case for excitement, confusion, or even markedly "vivid" description in this straightforward account of the orderly way in which a cool and self-controlled young man went about the business before him?

"If the original be ambiguous, a faithful translation should be just as ambiguous as the original." Here, too, there should be qualification. There are often verbal ambiguities unintended and unnoticed by the writer. When Thoreau spoke of certain regions as looking like "a natural pasture for the moose and deer, exceedingly wild and desolate, with occasional strips of timber crossing them," he meant to give the reader no ludicrous conception, though the misinterpretation suggested by the position of the word "wild" has never failed to excite the risibility of a single one of the many to whom the present writer has read the passage as a test. Thoreau had apparently no keen sense of such possibilities of verbal position, and one could readily collect a large number of instances from his volume on the 'Maine Woods,' the suggested absurdity in every case being unintentional. If one were translating him into another tongue primarily for the sake of his stylistic peculiarities, whether intentional or unintentional, he would try to reproduce these effects; if the purpose were primarily to reproduce his conception of the Maine forests, we fail to see the validity of any such requirement.

We might quote a dozen other positions, taken practically without qualification, where serious qualification is surely needed, but space forbids. We should like to quote and emphasize the author's protest against the "school-jargon" which many teachers allow—yes, even require—from beginners in Greek and Latin, and in most cases we can agree heartily with the "Don'ts" of the volume; on the positive side, the reader will get the most good by keeping a mental interrogation-point constantly in evidence, and remembering that, in dealing with the products of the human mind, formal rules of absolute validity are few and far between.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Mrs. William. The Love Letters of a Liar. Ess Ess Pub. Co.
Beacon Biographies: (1) Gould, Alice B. Louis Agassiz; (2) Sedgwick, jr., H. D. Father Hecker. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Corvo, F. B. In His Own Image. John Lane.
Drummond, W. B. The Child, his Nature and Nurture. (Temple Primers.) Macmillan. 40 cents.
Eliot, George. Adam Bede. John Lane.
Ford, Sheridan. The Art of Folly. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Gore, Charles. The Body of Christ. Scribners. $1.75.
Harvey, M. Newfoundland in 1900. The South Publishing Co.
Hotchkiss, C. C. Betsy Ross. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Jones, L. G. Health and a Day. Boston: James H. West Co. $1.
Kemble, J. R. Four Hundred Laughs; or, Fun without Vulgarity. New Amsterdam Book Co. 75 cents.
Lane, Albert. Elbert Hubbard and his Work. Published for the Author.
Marriott, Charles. The Column. John Lane.
Norris, Frank. The Octopus: A Story of California. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Pennypacker, I. R. General Meade. (Great Commanders.) D. Appleton & Co.
Procter, Zoë. A Birthday Book from the Writings of John Oliver Hobbes. John Lane.
Smith, Helen A. The Thirteen Colonies. (The Story of the Nations.) In two parts. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

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